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EDUCATION *in the* SECONDARY SCHOOL



C R O W
RITCHIE
C R O W

ABOUT THIS BOOK

Education in the Secondary School is a complete description and study of modern secondary education. It covers a wide range of topics, from the democratic ideals and objectives of education to details of school finance, school organisation, and curriculum sequences and components. *The emphasis is on clear and graphic presentation of subject matter, based on the principle of understanding the student, the staff, and the community.*

Numerous examples of current secondary-school practices, stimulating questions and topics for discussion, and extensive supplementary references are included in the text.

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SCHOOL



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Preface



The growing population of our secondary schools includes boys and girls who differ greatly in family background and ability to achieve academic success, as well as in educational and vocational interest and ambition. In *Education in the Secondary School*, we emphasize the functions of the school in relation to (1) the characteristics and educational needs of adolescents, (2) their lower-school background, (3) their post-high-school educational or vocational plans, and (4) the demands of society. Existing objectives, practices, and policies on the secondary-school level are interpreted and evaluated in the light of these functions.

For some time, changing educational philosophies have greatly influenced the elementary school. Until recently, however, the junior high school and especially the senior high school tended to follow relatively traditional programs of instruction. Now critical world conditions, scientific experimentation and discovery, and young people's awareness of and interest in cultural changes in relation to themselves necessitate curricular reorganization and improved teaching on the secondary-school level.

Our modern secondary schools serve two general functions: (1) extension of basic learnings, and (2) preparation for advanced study or for entrance into an occupation. Until the present century, fundamental learning, for the most part, comprised the mastery of the 3 R's in the elementary school; the secondary-school curriculum consisted mainly of subject matter aimed at preparing a limited number of young people for entrance into college. The goal of the modern secondary school, in partial con-

trast, is to encourage each pupil to participate in learning activities that can prepare him, both generally and specifically, for his present and future responsibilities as a forward-looking, co-operative, and skilled citizen of his country, and as an understanding and constructive member of a world-embracing society.

In this book the various educational needs of secondary-school pupils are discussed in detail, and suggestions are offered for their fulfillment. Considered also are attempts to achieve educational continuity through improved articulation between school levels and among secondary-school learning materials. Attention is given to appropriate ways of implementing the changing secondary-school curriculum.

Since young people learn through their experiences, both in and outside the school, their activities should be guided carefully and intelligently. Obviously, secondary-school teachers exert great influence on the developing personalities of their pupils. For this reason the responsibilities of the various members of the school personnel are presented in detail. Desirable personality qualities are discussed, and the need for proper preservice and in-service preparation is stressed. Moreover, since the extent to which a school can achieve its educational objectives depends on community encouragement and support, the treatment includes the importance of citizen attitudes toward an adequate budget and appropriate teaching-learning facilities.

Learner adjustment is a continuous and comprehensive process. The need for guidance is ever present; the authors therefore discuss the kinds of guidance that should be made available to young people during the secondary-school period. Finally, suggestions are offered regarding the curriculum and teaching trends that may characterize the secondary schools of the future.

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LESTER D. CROW
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Development of the Democratic Ideal in Education

We in the United States take for granted the ideal of tax-supported education for all individuals through the secondary school. In some parts of our country, a free college education is also available to able high-school graduates. There has been great concern, nevertheless, about the extent to which we are meeting all the educational needs of the citizenry. While some of the concern is warranted, many critics have failed to realize that educational democratization as we now know it has developed slowly through the centuries and has been accompanied by much controversy among educational leaders.

Educational philosophy is rooted in man's continuous struggle to adapt to or change his physical environment and learn to live with other human beings so that he may achieve a satisfying fulfillment of his needs, wants, and interests. Education is the primary medium whereby man hopes to improve existing conditions in the society of which he is a member.

EDUCATION AND A NATION'S WAY OF LIFE

A nation's educational philosophy reflects not only significant economic, religious, social, cultural, and political trends, but also the life goals of the people. Basic to any nation's way of life is its struggle for survival. The fulfillment of physical needs probably was a strong motivator of behavior and attitudes among primitive peoples, and was closely allied with religious beliefs and practices. Economic welfare has continued to exert major influence on educational objectives. Yet it is not the sole determinant of a nation's way of life. Social and political

ideology and traditional cultural or spiritual values also help form the foundation on which is built the educational system of any national group. That this is so will become clearer as we review briefly the significant objectives of education from the Greeks on down.

Greek Patterns of Education The Greeks never attained a completely uniform way of life. By the sixth century B.C., Hellenic Greece included many independent city states, the greatest of which were the Doric State of Sparta, with an oligarchical, despotic form of government, and the Ionian State of Athens, with a relatively democratic way of life. The educational ideals of the Spartans and the Athenians differed greatly.

Education in Sparta Sparta's wars with neighboring states, ending in her domination of the Peloponnesus, required that she produce a physically fit, thoroughly disciplined soldiery. A somewhat democratic constitution, attributed to Lycurgus (c. ninth century B.C.), provided for a military communism in which citizens were supposed to have equal economic and political rights and responsibilities. In practice, the individual became almost completely subservient to the state.

The goal of education was to develop able and patriotic soldiers by means of gymnastics, military exercises, religious and moral training, and patriotic music. Mental training was limited to speaking with precision, clarity, and brevity. In order that their male offspring might become strong and capable fighting men, girls received training in such physical activities as wrestling, playing ball, running, jumping, dancing, and riding. Spartan women exercised considerable control over their sons during the early years, before the boys were taken from the home and subjected to harsh physical and character discipline. It is fair to say that, while Sparta's education achieved its cultural goals, it failed to provide for the development of the spiritual and altruistic potentialities of the people.

Education in Athens In general, the Athenians did not experience the struggle for militaristic power characteristic of the Spartans. As a result of the economic and social reforms intro-

duced by Solon (c. seventh century B.C.) and his encouragement of industry and foreign trade, Athens became an extremely wealthy state. Its citizens enjoyed much leisure which could be devoted to the development of the arts and to constructive public services.

It must be remembered, however, that the citizen group probably never exceeded more than about 3 per cent of all Athenians. And from early times, the purpose of Athenian education was to serve the welfare of the freeman citizen and of the state. Thus "democratic" education, in the sense that we understand the term, was unknown in Athens—in fact, democracy was a concept abhorrent to the Greek mind.

Nevertheless, wholesome individualism was respected and encouraged through education. The various curriculums were relatively rigid, but they attempted to provide for each student opportunities to develop his particular interests and abilities, insofar as these were in accordance with state welfare.

The search for an ideal society which would provide freedom for the individual citizen and stability for the state gave rise to several schools of thought concerning the aims and functions of education. The Sophists emphasized individualization in education as the right of a freeman. They encouraged the development of intellectualism, and stressed the study of rhetoric. Yet the interrelation of individual and state was always a matter of concern. Even Protagoras, a leading Sophist who regarded the individual as higher in value than the state, wanted education to prepare the individual for service to the state.

Conservative Athenian leaders, such as Pericles, Aristophanes, and Xenophon, derided the more individualistic philosophy of the Sophists; they attempted to bring back the traditional social order, where the individual was subservient to the state. Since they considered war to be inevitable, they were more interested in training their youth to be efficient soldiers than in educating them to be intellectual pacifists. But the old education would have been out of place amid the many political, economic, and intellectual changes in a free, powerful, and rich Athens.

Although the Greeks were unable to realize their ideal of a perfectly balanced society, the constructive ideals of men like

Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle have had significant influence on the social and educational philosophy of the Western world.

According to Socrates, often referred to as "the father of philosophers," knowledge and reasoning are basic to the building of a stable society. Man is a rational being. Wisdom and virtue rather than individual well-being should be the aim of education. Plato's goal was the perfect state, with education the instrument of its attainment. Plato advocated control of the individual by the state, and a state system of education. But in his writings, especially in the *Republic* and the *Laws*, can be found some of the basic principles of modern education. He recognized differences in the physical, intellectual, social, religious, and aesthetic aspects of human nature and made provision for these differences in his educational programs. He also differentiated between the soul as spiritual and immortal, and the body as material and mortal. He held that reason (the highest quality of the soul) can be developed through a form of education that stresses character formation and the search for the true, the beautiful, and the good. Plato's doctrine of innate ideas and his concept of education as formal discipline have influenced educational theory and practice to the present.

Aristotle emphasized even more strongly than did Plato the concept of education as a state function. The nature of the political system which it serves and of the individuals to be educated he felt to be the chief concerns of education. Aristotle conceived education broadly to include not only formal schooling but all the experiences and influences that would help produce virtuous citizens.

Roman Culture and Education The rise of Rome from a small agrarian community to a powerful and wealthy nation is a story of continuous warfare, plunder, lust for power, and intrigue. Although agriculture continued to be important, the growth of the empire was accompanied by industrial and commercial progress and the amassing of great wealth.

Cultural trends As some plebians gradually won their struggle for higher political and economic status, there came into

being a new nobility, including both patricians and plebians. Most plebians, however, although they were free citizens, were poor and dependent on the aristocracy. Commercial and imperial expansion resulted in the rise of a capitalistic middle class, the members of which engaged in military, administrative, and commercial occupations.

Beginning as a monarchy, Rome became a republic and ended an imperial autocracy. Although many citizens obtained the vote, the highest political positions were held by the nobles. In theory, the Roman Empire subscribed to the principles of sovereignty of the people, an independent citizenry, and rule by law; in practice, the general populace shared few of the benefits of Roman culture.

Early religious beliefs and practices were closely associated with patriotism; religion rested on state-controlled rites and ceremonies rather than individual faith, although it was thought that the gods could influence man's destiny. One result of national expansion was that the religions of other peoples were absorbed by the Romans. Greek religious beliefs spread widely. The gods became more like human beings; with growing individualism and democracy, many Romans turned from a social religion to individual beliefs. Paganism gave way to Judaism and Christianity. With the conversion of the Emperor Justinian, Christianity became the official religion of the empire, although various pagan cults continued to struggle for survival, and pagan elements were introduced into Christian practices.

Intellectually, the Romans were inferior to the Greeks: the Romans were essentially practical-minded; the Greeks were more idealistic. Rome borrowed freely from Greek literature, art, and science; eventually Greek culture permeated the Roman way of life, except for government and law, in which the Romans were expert. Rome has given us two ethical systems that represent diametrically opposed life philosophies. According to Epicureanism, based on the materialistic philosophy of Epicurus and Lucretius, the purpose of life should be the pursuit of happiness, since values other than the enjoyment of pleasure are uncertain. Stoicism, in contrast, emphasized self-discipline, fatalism, and resignation to nature or God. According to Seneca,

"all life is slavery"; Marcus Aurelius believed that "life is a warfare." The Stoics favored education for world citizenship rather than for individual happiness.

Changing educational theory The educational philosophy of Rome changed as the Romans changed their social, political, religious, and intellectual ideas. During the early period, informal education was practical. Much of it took place in the home. Children were trained in moral discipline and religion. Physical strength and military skill were stressed for utilitarian purposes. There was little formal education.

The Transition Period brought with it formal schools patterned after Greek models, the chief purpose of which was to prepare skillful orators. On all school levels *verbatim* memorization was stressed, and discipline was extremely harsh.

Formal education in Rome during the Transition Period and later was strongly influenced by Greek educational philosophy, but the Romans did not entirely accept the Hellenistic ideal of a liberal education. For example, Quintilian, probably the outstanding Roman educational theorist, believing mental activity more important than physical development, followed the lead of Cicero in condemning extreme gymnastic training. Quintilian held that physical exercise should be for utilitarian purposes, not for pleasure.

In some ways Roman education paralleled modern education. A boy's education began at about the age of seven in an elementary school (*ludus*), where he was taught the 3R's. At twelve he entered grammar school, where he remained for four years and received a "general education," including instruction in Greek and Roman literature and in such other subjects as geography, history, and mythology. Some boys, at the age of sixteen, entered rhetorical schools, a type of school that emerged at the end of the Transition Period and was patterned on the Athenian model. Here boys received intensive training in oratory.

A wealthy boy might be tutored to the age of sixteen by a Greek slave or ex-slave (*paedagogus*) and then continue his education in a university, where he studied philosophy. Most girls were educated informally in the home, where they were

taught to be good housewives and achieve social graces. Some wealthy girls were instructed by private tutors in grammar, philosophy, music, and dancing.

At first, Roman schools were privately owned and administered on a fee basis. During the periods of Hellenization and the decline, the Roman emperors encouraged the establishment of publicly subsidized schools. Hence in Rome were set the patterns of publicly supported and controlled education that are so prominent in our modern world.

We owe much to the educational contributions of Greek and Roman philosophers. Yet we must keep in mind that democracy in education as we envision it was impossible among peoples whose way of life was built around a caste system that denied educational advantages to the masses.

Education in the Middle Ages Educational theory and practice from approximately the fourth through the fifteenth century were influenced by the fall of the Roman Empire and the rise to a place of prominence in Europe of Christian ideals and culture. The early Christian period was marked by struggles between paganism and Christianity which affected adversely the progress of Graeco-Roman educational philosophy. Toward the end of the Middle Ages, however, social and intellectual advancement was accompanied by a renewed appreciation of the value of Graeco-Roman educational ideals.

Cultural changes During the early Christian period, education was much influenced by the ideals of Judaism, Christianity, and various Oriental cults. The Christian religion, with its emphasis on individual salvation as well as on social reform, appealed to the emotions of the common people. Its teachings spread widely, and in 380 A.D. Christianity became the official faith of the Roman Empire. The domination of the state by the church lasted until the twelfth century, after which time national states emerged and increased in power, with accompanying loss by the church of authority over educational practice.

Religious controversy centered in the conflict between the rational philosophy of paganism and Christian emphasis on un-

questioning faith. The church bitterly opposed the study not only of pagan literature and philosophy but also of science, geography, and geology. Yet, although earning admission to Heaven was the ultimate goal of every true Christian, many did not wish to achieve this reward too soon. Hence the interest that was aroused in preventing disease and in prolonging life resulted in Christian leaders' rediscovery of the knowledge and intellectual interests of the past. Much of the intellectual accomplishment of antiquity was preserved by monks, in spite of the fact that the development of the monastic movement resulted from the strong desire of some Christian men and women to escape from the "wicked world" to a life of asceticism.

The decline of a strong central government and increasing economic insecurity gave rise to powerful feudal estates, whose owners exercised almost complete control over their people. The chief activities were war and agriculture. Society was divided into three groups: the clergy, the nobility, and the peasants. The first two enjoyed economic, social, and educational rights and privileges; the peasants were poor, illiterate, and without educational opportunities. Gradually, however, there emerged, as a result of increased industry and commerce, another group (the bourgeoisie), who eventually were to have paramount influence in the development of economic, social, and educational institutions. Included in the bourgeois class were powerful and wealthy manufacturers, merchants, and bankers.

Changing educational theory and practice During the early Middle Ages, the Graeco-Roman goal of education as preparation for participation in worldly affairs was replaced by ideals and values inherent in the Christian religion. Emphasis was placed, naturally, on spiritual values, on preparation for life in a heavenly world. Religious and moral training was stressed; physical education was neglected. Nevertheless, Christian schools for the upper social class borrowed their curriculum largely from the Romans, using the Roman structure of the *seven liberal arts*. The first three (the Trivium), including grammar, rhetoric, and dialectic, were taught in the lower schools; the last four (the Quadrivium), including arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music, were offered, with some his-

tory and Roman law, in the upper schools. Instruction was in Latin, and teaching methods were rigid. The main purpose of education was to discipline man's sinful nature. Early Christian education, being controlled by the clergy, naturally emphasized religious instruction, presented in Latin.

Medieval thought was greatly influenced by the theological doctrine of the dualism of human nature: man is composed of soul and body. St. Thomas Aquinas (c. 1225-1274), an outstanding scholastic philosopher known as the "father of rational psychology," accepted the concept of dualism, and the theory that education is a mind-building process. Aquinas distinguished between faculties of the mind and sensory experiences, and believed that the image in consciousness of a perceived object is preceded by the arousal of an awareness of its meaning. Thomism has continued to exert considerable influence on educational psychology.

The growth of cities and towns was accompanied by the establishment of secular and utilitarian schools in which instruction was in the vernacular. These schools were the forerunners of today's public schools. Although the later Middle Ages had both church and secular schools, education was not compulsory; school systems as we know them did not exist. Most of the people, especially the laboring class, were illiterate; with the exception of nuns and some lay women who taught girls their religious and housewifely obligations, the teachers were men, either members of the clergy or poorly prepared, low-salaried laymen.

The greatest contribution to education of the Middle Ages was the development of the university to prepare men for professions such as theology, medicine, law, and teaching. Although many of the universities suffered from lack of funds, the instructors and students enjoyed various privileges, such as the right to travel freely from nation to nation, exemption from taxes and military service, and independence from church or state control. The methods of teaching were limited to dictation, lectures, and disputation.

A university education was a privilege enjoyed only by young men whose parents could afford it; the general populace remained ignorant. The curriculum was narrow and instruction

highly formalized. Yet the medieval university exerted considerable influence on Western culture in that it revived ancient knowledge. Too, it spread new ideas, and helped bring about church reforms and the growth of nationalism. The student of modern secondary education will find the following university procedures interesting in relation to their present-day counterparts: (1) attendance at a grammar school (the modern secondary school) was required for admission to a university, (2) entrance examinations were administered and many applicants rejected, (3) quiz or review courses were instituted, (4) textbooks were utilized, and (5) to some extent, academic freedom (an area of present controversy) was encouraged.

EDUCATION AND THE DEMOCRATIZATION OF WESTERN CULTURE

From the twelfth to the twentieth century, the history of Western Europe is marked by significant political, economic, social, religious, and intellectual changes. These cultural changes naturally exerted a tremendous influence on educational theory and practice. We shall trace briefly the various changes that are fundamental to our own patterns of education..

Cultural Changes This period is marked by (1) a growing demand of the masses for political recognition and national solidarity, (2) a rapid increase in industrial and commercial activities, (3) religious controversy, (4) clashes among existing social classes, and (5) intellectual progress.

Political changes By the fourteenth century, church domination over the state was giving way to secular control by strong national groups. Until the eighteenth century, however, most national governments were ruled by autocratic sovereigns, and the masses had little if any political rights. Constitutional reforms in England and the French and American Revolutions brought some political rights to the masses.

Economic changes The growth of nationalism was accompanied by increased industrialism and the spread of commerce.

With the growth of the capitalistic system, there has been a progressive trend from an urban to a national and then to an international economy.

Social changes In spite of revolutionary and political changes, the masses long received little or no consideration from the propertied classes. There was a wide gulf between "gentle folks" and the proletariat in privileges, dress, speech, manners, and educational advantages. It was not until the French Revolution that the masses gained political and social rights, which, unfortunately, they were not prepared to exercise constructively. Economic progress and the development of the democratic ideal of government have been instrumental, nevertheless, in achieving for man a kind of individual dignity apart from social class status.

Religious changes Since the beginning of the Renaissance (the period of "awakening"), religious concepts and practices have been subject to many changes. Various religious groups have engaged in attacks and counterattacks in their struggles for control of the thinking of the masses. The authority of the church was lessened by (1) the growth of secular political control, (2) industrial and commercial progress (with emphasis on material gain), (3) the gradual breaking down of social class distinctions, and (4) intellectual advancements, especially in the sciences. Among many people, the ideal of otherworldliness gave way to concern about life on earth. Some churchmen failed to practice the virtues they taught. The newer intellectualism encouraged the growth of doubt and skepticism.

The Reformation, under the leadership of Martin Luther, was essentially a revolt against church authority in behalf of relative autonomy for the individual in religious matters. Other religious reformations followed that of Luther, one of the most significant of them being Calvinism. Thus Western culture has come to be influenced by the doctrines of two great religious beliefs: Roman Catholicism and Protestantism.

Although the various divisions of Protestantism (Methodist, Lutheran, Presbyterian, Baptist, Episcopalian, and others) differ somewhat in their tenets, they agree that gaining salvation

is an individual responsibility based on following the teachings of the Bible. Among early Protestant groups, therefore, it was emphasized that children should be taught to read the Bible. Moreover, although many nations continued to support a state church, mainly as a means of unifying their people, freedom of worship became a democratic ideal.

Intellectual changes From the revival of Graeco-Roman literature emerged the humanistic movement, combining the pre-Christian concept of a liberal education with the goals of individual advancement. The humanists emphasized the ideal of self-realization on this earth rather than preparation for a future life, although they adhered to religious codes of ethical or moral living. Humanistic teaching represented a transition in education from the traditional to the modern. The curriculum was expanded and stressed ancient literature, and a new type of secondary school arose in which great Greek and Roman writers were read in the original. Here, for the most part, instruction was in Latin. Improved methods of teaching and learning were developed. The education of girls as well as of boys of the upper classes was encouraged.

Although humanism continues to exert considerable influence on secondary and higher education, the scientific renaissance of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries marked the beginning of a revival of interest in the discovery of new knowledge. Science brought with it the "scientific method," the empirical or inductive approach to the study of nature and its laws through sensory experiences, systematic observation, and experimentation. John Locke, in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, stressed sensation and experience as the bases of attaining true knowledge, and emphasized a practical morality growing out of experience. The growth of scientific study significantly influenced political, moral, and religious traditions. Some of the scientific movement still continue, especially those that center in public and private morality, and ethical and moral education.

Although the idea of social evolution was implied in the writings of eighteenth-century philosophers, Charles Darwin's formulation in the nineteenth century of the theory of biological

evolution gave rise to the idea that the evolutionary process affected all areas of life. Herbert Spencer (1820-1903); for instance, attempted to analyze life processes and activities as the bases of educational theory and practice. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, he presented the following as the five categories of life activity:

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation.
2. Those activities which by securing the necessities of life indirectly minister to self-preservation.
3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring.
4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations.
5. Those activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.¹

Spencer believed that the function of education is to prepare for "complete living," a point of view that has been influential in both England and the United States.

Basic Factors of Education in the American Democracy We have discussed briefly the relation of educational theory and practice to changing social, political, economic, and religious ideology. Until fairly recently, formal education, especially on the secondary and higher levels, generally was regarded as appropriate for only the privileged classes. Indeed, most educational philosophers considered the children of the masses intellectually unable to benefit from any except simple, practical learning. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) was one of the first to demand a new education that would appeal not only to reason but also to human emotions as fundamental to social well-being in a democratic state. His revolt against the injustices of his time and his concern with the child as an individual influenced the thinking of succeeding intellectual and educational leaders.

Contributions of psychology Psychology, the study of human behavior, began as a philosophic consideration of man's

¹ Herbert Spencer, *Education*, D. Appleton and Company, New York 1883, p. 32.

place in nature and the relationship that exists between soul and body. Early psychologists believed that mental life consists of an association of ideas originating in sensation; introspection was the chief method of studying mental activity; the purpose of education was to discipline all phases of human nature. Advances in the fields of chemistry, biology, and anatomy stimulated interest in a scientific study of human nature, especially the mental processes. G. Stanley Hall (1846-1924) became famous as a genetic psychologist, and Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) established the first significant experimental laboratory in psychology. Research in psychology, based on study in biology, physiology, neurology, and endocrinology, is a twentieth-century development. Current educational philosophies cannot be divorced from the experimental findings of such educational psychologists as William James (1842-1910), Edward L. Thorndike (1874-1949), John Dewey (1859-1952), Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936), John Watson (1878-1958), and Wolfgang Köhler (1887-) and his associates.² Each of these men contributed something to educational objectives, curriculum construction, or teaching-learning approaches.

John Dewey, for example, gave a new look to educational theory and practice. In accord with the philosophy of Herbert Spencer, educators of the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century had tended to regard education as *preparation* for life, and the main function of schooling, especially on the secondary level, to prepare young people to meet adequately their later adult responsibilities. This point of view was challenged by Dewey, who has been acclaimed generally as the greatest educational philosopher of his time. Dewey propounded the thesis that education *is* life, not preparation for life.

Education, as conceived by Dewey, aims at providing life experiences, in addition to textbooks, as a medium of learning. According to his philosophy, every phase of a learner's life is basic to the development of an understanding of present experiences that will aid in the growth of power to meet future experiences.

² See E. R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1948, and L. P. Thorpe and A. M. Schmuller, *Contemporary Theories of Learning*, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1954.

"Learning by doing" has become an educational slogan summing up the Dewey philosophy.

The elementary-school curriculum was affected powerfully by this point of view. Applications of Dewey's recommendations have been referred to by such terms as *progressive education*, *the activity curriculum*, *learning through experience*, and *living and learning*. Experiential learning also has had some effect on higher school organization and curriculums. Secondary schools, for the most part, however, still attempt to achieve practical educational objectives by way of more or less conventional procedures.

Early Beginnings in American Education The first settlers in the New World had left a homeland seething with political and religious conflict to search for religious or political freedom, or for greater economic stability. But Old World traditions naturally tended to influence their way of life. Their struggles with nature as they attempted to build homes for themselves in virgin territory, however, gradually led to the development of a new culture that exerted a tremendous influence on educational theory and practice.

Education in early colonial days followed the pattern which was developing in Western Europe. Among the leaders of the early settlements were men who had been graduated from European universities and were steeped in European traditions. The New England colonists, especially, were deeply religious people. These factors were responsible for the kind and amount of education that was made available to colonial boys.

Beginnings of elementary education Since the religious leaders in the New England colonies stressed individual responsibility for salvation, it was considered the duty of parents to provide for their children some training in reading, so that no one would be denied the opportunity to save his soul by reading the Bible and catechism and following the precepts contained in them. The children of the wealthy received their early training from private tutors. Whatever learning was done by the children of the lower economic classes in New England took place in

"master" schools or "dame" schools. In the other colonies, especially those settled by the Germans and the Scandinavians, rudimentary education was available in parochial or private schools that were very much like the church-controlled elementary schools of Europe. No attempt was made at systematic organization or effective supervision in these precursors of the modern elementary school. Many of the teachers were relatively illiterate, and teaching usually was only one of their regular duties.

Early secondary schools What little schooling there was on the secondary level followed closely the Reformation ideal of humanistic education. The first secondary school, a Latin grammar school, was established in Boston in 1635. The boys who attended this school or others of its kind presumably did so to prepare themselves for college, where they would be educated as religious or civic leaders. Actually, however, a relatively small number of the boys who began their schooling in a Latin grammar school continued their education on the college level. As a result, many of the boys, even those of the upper classes, received a so-called liberal education only during their early formative years.

The Latin grammar schools, especially in the New England colonies, were considered public institutions of learning, even though they might be financed by private funds and controlled by a board of trustees. This concept of the public character of secondary education was evidenced by the passage in Massachusetts of the education law of 1647, commonly referred to as the *Old Deluder Satan Act*. The purpose of this law was to reaffirm the need of fundamental school training for all children, as provided for in a law of 1642 which placed the responsibility on individual communities to provide opportunities for continued education on the secondary level.

During the seventeenth century no special school buildings were maintained. The teachers (sometimes only one master) and pupils met in town halls, churches, or private homes. The life of the student was not easy. The school year was from ten to twelve months. Daily sessions began at seven or eight o'clock in the morning and lasted until dark. Discipline was rigid, frequently expressing itself in the form of a switch.

During the early years of a boy's attendance at the school, his learning was limited almost entirely to memorizing forms and rules. The teaching procedures are described by Martin:

We are to fancy our Latin School boys, in the earlier days, in the master's house working their way through Cheever's *Accidence*, then plunging into the dreary wilderness of Libby's *Grammar*, with its twenty-five kinds of nouns, its seven genders, its fifteen solid pages of rules for gender and the exceptions, its twenty-two solid pages of declensions of nouns, all of which must be committed to memory.

For reading Latin the boys had first the *Colloquies* of Corderius. . . . They read *Aesop*, too. Then followed *Eutropius*—his short history of Rome. Soon they began making the Latin, using exercise books; then, in turn, *Caesar*, *Ovid*, *Virgil*, and *Cicero*; for Greek, the grammar and the *Testament* and some *Homer*. All this was to fit them for the university, as the law required.³

Rise of the American academy By the middle of the eighteenth century, many social, political, and economic changes had taken place. Leadership had passed from the clergy and the aristocracy to laymen, many of whom belonged to well-to-do middle-class groups. New land had been settled. Commercial interests were thriving. Social barriers were breaking down. It is accurate to say that, in general, democratic idealism had replaced religious zeal as the force that impelled later colonists to establish new towns, explore more westerly areas of this vast country, and develop an attitude of independent solidarity. These trends gradually divorced the thinking of the original thirteen American colonies from their European traditions and loyalties.

Educationally, the early seventeen hundreds was a transition period. Interest in culture was low. By 1749, however, the time seemed ripe for Benjamin Franklin to present his *Proposals Relating to the Youth in Pennsylvania*. Franklin envisaged a school founded by public-spirited men which would prepare young people for active life. In this school revolutionary learning facilities and materials would be included, such as "orchards, meadow and a field or two" for the study of science and hus-

³ G. H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1894, pp. 58-59.

bandry; opportunities for the boys to engage "in running, leaping and wrestling," and "a library, maps of all countries, globes, some mathematical instruments, an apparatus for experimenting in natural philosophy (science) and mechanics, prints of all kinds, prospects, buildings, and machines."

The teaching was to be conducted in English rather than in Latin, and was to deal with such subjects as oral and written English, arithmetic, geometry, history, agriculture, industry, and commerce. Franklin did not consider Latin and the modern foreign languages to have any great value. Yet, recognizing that some students might be interested in language study, he did not exclude these subjects from the curriculum.⁴

Sufficient interest was engendered by Franklin's proposals so that, in 1751, the organization of the Philadelphia Public Academy was made possible through the financial assistance of the citizens of that city. Tradition was strong, however. Although the academy became increasingly popular, its curriculum at first was little more than an adaptation of earlier secondary-school curriculums. Supposedly established to meet the educational needs of the common people, the academy actually emphasized those "classical" subjects which had most utility for the leisure classes. To the extent that this purpose was realized it became a substitute for college rather than a preparatory school for entrance to college. In some instances, however, the academy did seem to serve a definite vocational purpose, especially in the training of teachers.

This type of semiprivate academy did not fulfill Franklin's ideal of a secondary school. It became, however, an intermediate step between the traditional Latin grammar school and the modern public secondary school. Girls as well as boys were admitted to the academy. The curriculum was relatively liberal. In addition, the academy was considered to be independent of the college.

In line with the various functions to be served, the Philadelphia Public Academy was organized into three schools: a Latin, a mathematical, and an English school. In this way education on the secondary level became differentiated, and teachers were thereby enabled to give some attention to individual interests and

⁴ See Thomas Woody, *The Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1936.

abilities. Other academies, established later, tended to follow this plan.

Some of the academies were local schools, but many were boarding schools, in which the students were introduced to a kind of campus life similar to that of college today. Although learning was looked on as a serious business, disciplinary measures were less harsh than in the traditional grammar school—fines replaced the switch.

Apparently student activity was encouraged. Since there were no formalized systems of subject credits, curricular and extra-curricular activities were merged into a series of opportunities for student participation in many and varied activities. In some schools these included student organizations, school papers, and dramatics.

In general, the natural sciences and mathematics received major consideration, with some attention to the humanities and social studies. Preparation for admission to college according to an organized program of prerequisites and specific training for vocational competence were incidental rather than planned.

The rapid growth in popularity of the academy was the ultimate cause of its downfall as an educational agency. The revolutionary nature of the ideal of secondary education made it almost impossible to bring about the type of stability in the academy that was needed to keep it alive. But in spite of its failings, the academy made extremely valuable contributions to educational progress in America. It was a factor in the gradual shift from Church schools and sectarian-dominated schooling to community-sponsored education. It opened its doors to girls as well as to boys. Its curriculum gave evidence of breadth, even though much of the treatment of subjects was superficial. Since the offerings of the academy were likely to be haphazard, colleges were forced to become less stringent in their demands concerning classical prerequisites for college admission. At the same time, the offerings of the colleges themselves were improved and broadened.

Development of the public high school The public high school, which originated early in the nineteenth century, supplanted the American academy in popularity and breadth of function. It is a significant fact, however, that the first high

school was established, not as a protest against the academy but as an attempt to spread the academy ideal so that it might function for the benefit of an increasing number of young people.

During the early 1800's, when the academy was flourishing, the American people were becoming increasingly stable and prosperous, and increasingly aware of the individual's right to develop his potentialities and interests to the fullest possible extent. They were becoming, in short, education conscious. This attitude was responsible in large measure for the popularity of the academy movement. However, opportunities for continued study by young Americans were limited by several factors: (1) most of the academies had become fee-charging institutions, (2) many of these schools were showing an increasing trend back to the old classical curriculum, and (3) attendance at an academy too often meant that the student was forced to live away from home.

It was to remove these limitations that the English Classical School was established in 1821 by the city of Boston. The name of the school was changed in 1824 to the English High School, and the term *high school* came to be applied generally to publicly supported and controlled post-elementary schools that were established in other communities.

In 1827, Massachusetts passed a law establishing state responsibility for secondary education. This law served as a model for similar legislation in other states. The example set by Massachusetts resulted in the establishment of a high school in Philadelphia (1836) and in Baltimore (1838). In some states, including Maine and New York, the establishment of high schools was permissive but not compulsory. Local communities were encouraged to establish them, and state aid was made available for their support. The ideal of secondary education for the masses of American youth was not achieved without strong opposition and bitter conflict. The earlier struggles that resulted finally in the general acceptance of public elementary education were repeated with even greater intensity when popular demand arose for the extension of state support to the secondary level.

The adherents of the academy joined forces with those per-

sons who themselves had no more than an elementary education. Strong opposition was voiced against the wasting of tax-derived money for "newfangled" educational notions. The struggle reached its culmination in 1872, when a Michigan taxpayer claimed that the law providing taxes for "common schools" referred only to schools on the elementary level. Education beyond that level, the claim went, was not "common" but intended for the favored few, who could very well afford to pay for it in private institutions. The court case that resulted was settled in 1874 by Judge Cooley, who ruled that "neither in our state policy, in our constitution, nor in our laws do we find the primary school districts restricted in the branches of knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught, or the grade of instruction that may be given, if their voters consent—in regular form to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose."

Judge Cooley's ruling, usually referred to as the *Kalamazoo Decision*, served as an impetus for the establishment of public high schools throughout the United States. By 1890, about 200,000 young people were enrolled in 2,500 public high schools. During the next twenty years the number of such high schools increased to 10,000, serving more than 900,000 boys and girls. By 1960 there were 28,000 high schools enrolling 9,200,000 pupils.

The High-School Curriculum During the first half of the nineteenth century, high-school curriculums tended to follow those of the academies except insofar as the high school attempted to build upon the common or elementary school. Admission to the high schools usually was gained through examination, and the length of the course varied from one to four years. The curriculum of many of the public high schools was modeled on that of the English school or the academy. The high-school course at first was terminal for most pupils.

The responsibility for preparing some of the pupils for college entrance was assumed gradually. In the last half of the century many high-school graduates were well prepared to meet college entrance requirements. Some of the colleges waived the traditional entrance requirements and adjusted their own programs

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to meet the interests of those young people who had not pursued a classical curriculum on the secondary level. Such students earned degrees other than the customary bachelor of arts.

Some nineteenth-century educators decried the attempts of high schools to function in a dual capacity—to provide terminal education and to meet college entrance standards. In 1867, Henry Barnard, United States Commissioner of Education, expressed the opinion that the public high school should not become a college-preparatory institution. President Parker of Yale and President Eliot of Harvard believed that colleges could not and should not accept graduates of the public high school, feeling that the training received there could not be controlled by the colleges and so would be inadequate.

The doubting Thomases did not stem the tide of popular opinion; the public demand for more and better secondary education continued. As the states increased in wealth and power they began to assume greater financial responsibility for and control of local secondary schools. Legislation was passed concerning such matters as teacher training and certification, curricular standards, selection of textbooks, school organization, supervision, and techniques of teaching. The granting of state aid to local districts for secondary as well as for elementary schooling became a common educational practice.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the public high school was an accepted American institution. The function that the high school should serve was not adequately defined, however. The controversy concerning the effectiveness of the public high school as a college-preparatory institution was intensified by the fact that the high schools themselves differed in the quality and quantity of their offerings.

The University of Michigan took the lead in trying to bring about better articulation between the high school and the college. Studies made by college officials of the work of the various high schools in Michigan resulted in the admission to the university, without examination, of the graduates of some of the schools investigated. Other states followed the example set by Michigan, and accrediting systems within states were evolved. Further regulation of college-entrance requirements resulted from the formation of regional accrediting agencies. The North Central Associ-

ation of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized in 1894 to meet the needs of the middle states. The groundwork for the formation of such associations had been laid in the 1880's, when the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools came into being. In line with the advancement of the public high school, this association later became the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The American public high school received widespread attention from the various educational groups that had arisen during the century. Prominent among these was the National Education Association. In 1892, the famous Committee of Ten, with Charles W. Eliot as its chairman, was appointed by the NEA to conduct a study of secondary education, including its organization and function, curriculum, and future needs. The report of the Committee's findings and recommendations influenced greatly the direction taken by public secondary education well into the twentieth century. (See Chapter 2.)

The year 1900 found public secondary education thoroughly established as an important agency of formal education. It had emerged from its nineteenth-century struggle for existence. Intended to meet the needs of all young people, it actually served best those who planned to continue their education on the college level. Individual differences among pupils were reflected only slightly in the ordinary high-school curriculum. In large cities, some differentiation of curriculum was possible but in smaller communities more than one curriculum could rarely be offered, and that one was strongly flavored with traditional emphasis on classical subject matter.

PROBLEMS FACING MODERN AMERICAN EDUCATION

By the early years of the twentieth century, public education had become an instrument for unifying our national democracy. The ladder system of publicly supported or relatively free education, extending from the kindergarten through land grant colleges, state universities, and teacher training institutions, had been introduced. Elementary education had become universal and secondary schools were developing rapidly; the formulation of compulsory school laws had started; curriculums were expanding.

State and local governments, as well as the federal government, had begun to assume responsibility for providing educational opportunities for all children and young people, as well as for many adults. Sound educational theory and practice has made rapid progress in the twentieth century, but many problems born of our changing way of life still require solution.

Education of the Individual in a Democracy Basic to the development of our political democracy has been man's striving for freedom. Personal freedom of action cannot be divorced, however, from the good of the group. The function of the government then becomes that of reconciling individual freedom and community welfare. As we have traced the relationships that existed between the way of life of various groups and their educational ideologies, it probably has become apparent that two general objectives of education have emerged: (1) assimilation of the cultural heritage—that is, preparation to live in the society in which one is born, and (2) mastery of the tools of thinking needed to preserve and improve that society.

In the past, the good of the individual generally was subsumed under the good of the group. The present trend in educational philosophy would seem to place greater emphasis on the role of the individual as an influence on the group: if we take care of the individual, he will take care of society.

The implications for education of this individual-to-group relationship are significant. The purpose of elementary schooling in general is to help *all* children meet their basic physical and social needs. Even at this educational level, however, we are concerned with individual differences in abilities and potential interests. The Early Identification Program recently inaugurated in the New York City School System is an example of efforts to discover among children in the early grades those who possess special strengths or weaknesses and to adjust teaching-learning procedures accordingly. As we consider secondary-school objectives, curriculum offerings, and teaching-learning procedures, it should become apparent that emphasis is being placed on helping each student achieve, within the limits of his abilities and interests, those knowledges, skills, and attitudes that fit him for constructive living in a democracy, where the good of the group

is dependent on the contribution to its welfare of each of its members.

Stress on the good of the individual as fundamental to the good of society has given rise to various educational problems. Who shall decide what a particular young person's special contribution to society can be? What kind of education does he need to meet his democratic responsibilities? What are some of the obstacles encountered in attempts to provide adequate schooling for each young person? To find satisfactory answers to these and similar questions requires continued study and much experimentation.

Significant Conditions Affecting Education The job of the schools is made more complicated by a number of things. Compared with that of past centuries, the growth in population, especially since the 1940's, has been little short of phenomenal. Although patterns of family life always have tended to vary with cultural changes, the modern family seems to have become a very loosely knit social unit, so that the school has had to take over some of its functions. In addition, we are living in a period of occupational specialization; opportunities for many and diverse leisure-time and recreational opportunities are increasing; as a result of existing world-wide chaotic conditions there is emerging in our country a new concept of citizenship responsibility—provision for international welfare rather than concern only for the extension of national power and prestige. Since these conditions exert so great an influence on educational theory and practice, we now shall consider the first four briefly in relation to present and probable future school procedures. Education for international understanding will be treated in later chapters.

Population changes Since 1900 the population of the United States has increased from 75 million to more than 180 million. Not only are births increasing, but the average age of life expectancy has increased from about 47 in 1900 to about 69 in 1960: 67 years for men, and 73 years for women. The increase in school population has presented us with such problems as (1) providing more school buildings, administrative and teaching personnel, and equipment in a hurry; (2) planning courses

that will develop new retirement interests on the part of older citizens; and (3) providing special educational facilities and approaches to assist young people with a cultural background different from ours to live in our society, perhaps even to master a new language.

Another educational problem arises from the increased mobility of our population. To the extent that standards and curriculum offerings differ among school systems, the transfer of young people from one school to another often means considerable adjustment to new curriculums and teaching approaches.

Family relationships Some of the elements making for loose family relationships are larger population, increased recreational facilities outside the home, increase in the number of mothers who are employed, and differing work schedules of family members. The American people, young and older, spend many of their waking hours away from the home. In urban communities especially, participation of mothers in work outside the home, for example, often leaves young people stranded after regular school hours, except as after-school play centers and all-day schools provide activities for them under teacher supervision.

As a result of the invention of labor-saving devices, freedom from domestic drudgery, while good in itself, means that young people are denied the opportunity of participating with other family members in projects aimed at the development of habits of industry and of responsibility for home care. Hence much of this training is given in the school. The home also traditionally has had responsibility for the education of young people in ethical standards. Where and when the home fails in this function, the school attempts to substitute for the home.

Problems associated with work and recreation We are becoming a nation of occupational specialists. In preparation for his life work today's young person should discover as early in his school life as is feasible the kind of work for which he is suited and in which he is interested. He then needs help in achieving his occupational goal. The school plays an important role in guiding the individual along each step of the way. It is also a function of educational agencies to watch occupational trends so that their

pupils can meet the vocational needs of society as these arise. For example, a recently recognized need for trained scientists has resulted in greater emphasis on mathematics and science teaching in both elementary and secondary schools.

Another educational problem is posed by the trend toward a reduction in the length of time an individual spends in purely occupational activity. The work day is eight hours or shorter; the work week in many occupational fields is no more than five days; vacation periods range from two weeks to a month or more. As an accompaniment of this increase in leisure time there has arisen a need for a corresponding increase of opportunities for workers to engage in wholesome, enjoyable leisure-time activities. The school is attempting to meet this need. Pupils are encouraged to participate in school-sponsored and teacher-supervised projects such as sports, dancing, musical and dramatic productions, and reading for pleasure. Many of these can serve as recreational activities throughout adulthood. Teachers also introduce young people to interesting and healthful leisure-time facilities that are available in and near the community: museums, art galleries, libraries, parks, picnic grounds, clubs, and other recreational centers.

Meeting the Pupil's Needs A popular concept of the school's function is the "education of the whole child." Our schools are attempting to meet this goal. To be effective in meeting all the needs of all their pupils, school people face problems such as formulating comprehensive educational objectives, constructing varied and appropriate curriculums, and providing adequately differentiated teaching-learning facilities. These problems can be solved with relative ease on the elementary-school level. On the secondary level, however, the diversified abilities and interests of young people create an educational situation that requires continuous rethinking and reorganizing of school offerings.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Cite examples to indicate the influence of economic welfare on educational objectives.
2. Compare the educational goals of Sparta and Athens. Explain differences.

3. Discuss the effect on education of early Christian ideals.
4. How did Graeco-Roman culture influence Christian education?
5. How did the rise of the university during the Middle Ages affect secondary education?
6. What are some of the basic factors of education in a democracy?
7. To what extent is modern secondary education influenced by humanism?
8. Indicate likenesses and differences among the Latin grammar school, the academy, and the public high school.
9. What is the significance in secondary education of the Kalamazoo Decision?
10. Discuss nineteenth-century controversy concerning the purposes of the public high school. What were the outcomes?
11. Name two general objectives of education. Illustrate each. Which objective, if either, do you consider to be more important? Give reasons.
12. In your opinion, does man make society or does society make the man? Substantiate your point of view. What are the educational implications?
13. By examples, indicate the effect on formal education of each of the following: (1) increase in school population, (2) present-day family relationships, (3) occupational specialization, (4) increased leisure time.
14. By reference to the Bureau of Vital Statistics in your state, obtain the number of births for each year from 1945 through 1960. What educational problems are related to birth rate?
15. To what extent are the secondary schools providing suitable vocational guidance and preparation?
16. Prepare two lists of recreational facilities: (a) commercially controlled, and (b) community supported. Which list is longer? Check those facilities in both lists that you consider most worthwhile for children and adolescents.
17. Describe briefly the contribution of each of the following men to educational philosophy:

Socrates	Thomas Hobbes
Aristotle	Charles Darwin
St. Thomas Aquinas	Herbert Spencer
Martin Luther	Jean Jacques Rousseau
Francis Bacon	Benjamin Franklin
John Locke	John Dewey
18. Trace the progress of educational theory and practice since the

time of the Greeks in relation to economic, political, social, and religious changes.

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The Goals of Modern Secondary Education

Basic to the formulation of secondary-school objectives, the construction of appropriate curriculums, and the devising of effective teaching-learning procedures is an appreciation of what has preceded and what can be expected to follow in the total pattern of educational offerings. Secondary education is concerned primarily with providing young people with opportunities to achieve a successful transition from childhood dependence on their elders to adult independence and assumption of responsibility for the welfare of others.

Many pupils approach their secondary-school experiences with mixed emotions. They are thrilled by the thought that they no longer are elementary-school children. Indeed, they have a tendency to regard themselves as already grown up rather than in the process of growing up. They usually feel it necessary to assert themselves as individuals in their relationships with adults, especially with parents and teachers, and at the same time they are fearful of what lies ahead of them.

THE NATURE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Definition of Secondary Education There has been, and still is, some confusion about exactly what years in the educational program should be labeled *high school* and *secondary school*. In the past the two terms were used interchangeably to indicate the four years following an eight-grade elementary-school program. The development of the junior-high school organization (seventh and eighth grades and often seventh, eighth, and ninth grades) upset the neatness of this classification. For some rea-

son, we all seem to prefer a tripartite classification of education, with elementary school and college at the opposite ends. There is a tendency now to call the program between elementary school and college, whatever grades that program may include, *secondary education*, and in this text we use the term with that meaning. *Secondary school* means grades 7 through 12. At times it will be convenient to speak of the junior high school and the senior high; it should be remembered that these are not distinct from the secondary school but are included in it.

The extension of education The development of mass production techniques has given us a society in which, for purely economic reasons, it is advantageous in normal times to restrict the labor supply by raising the age at which individuals enter the labor market. Such a situation has served to let us exercise without major resistance our perhaps natural tendency to extend greater educational opportunities to people of all social and economic strata. In brief, the combination of economic advantage and social desire has resulted in the extension of practically universal education into the secondary-school level. We feel so strongly about this that all states now have compulsory attendance laws which ensure some secondary educational training to all normal children. Secondary education thus has become a part of every normal American's life experience.

The Content of Secondary Education There was a time when secondary education, the possession of a privileged class, was intended strictly as preparation for a university training, which was one of the hallmarks of that class. The curriculum was dictated, naturally, by need—the students needed to live like gentlemen, as their social position required: to "cultivate the mind." Traditionally the key to such cultivation was thought to lie in a study of the classics, especially Latin and Greek language and literature: early high schools in this country were called "Latin" schools.

When the secondary school became populated with students from all economic and social strata, the objectives, to be responsive to needs, obviously had to change. Building a curriculum for all social classes is an enormously complex task. A great

deal of experimentation was and is necessary, and odd-sounding courses (odd at least to older ears), like sewing and folk dancing, have been in and out of curriculums. Critics of the experiments have been many, of course, but they have usually known more about what should be out of the curriculum than what should be in, for few of them would advocate a return to the Latinate program. Usually they talk about "fundamentals," not realizing that the problem is to determine what the fundamentals are. The task of the secondary school is not merely, as it once was, to prepare a relatively few persons to occupy a clearly defined position in the social order; it is to train a whole people to occupy the myriad positions that, together, make up the American democracy.

The psychologists, too, have made us realize more fully how great our problem is. Mental power—educability, so to speak—was once thought of as a sort of horse power. One had so much of it and should be educated to use all he had (if he belonged to the privileged class), and that was the end of it. Now we know that there are different *kinds* of mental power, requiring different stimuli for their development. A student who cannot "take" more than a year of secondary mathematics to advantage may be a genius in mechanics—and our society needs skilled people in both areas. The psychologists have let us know, too, that mental development is not the be-all and end-all of formal education. Much effective education must be directed toward the development of personality (the total complex of thoughts, wishes, dreams, attitudes, and so on) and the satisfaction of personality needs.

We shall say much more of curriculum later. Here it is appropriate merely to list some general principles which can help us determine a proper content for the secondary curriculum. The secondary-school student should be given the opportunity:

1. To understand and respect the democratic way of life and to guide his behavior accordingly
2. To recognize his responsibility for the welfare of other people as well as for his own well-being
3. To gain mastery of those skills and knowledges and to achieve those attitudes that can fit him to become a constructive member of society

4. To develop continuously whatever special talents or abilities he may possess
5. To form and practice habits aimed at preserving good physical and mental health
6. To become informed about available fields of vocational activity and to select and begin training for participation in a suitable occupation
7. To acquire a scientific approach to decision making, and to develop honesty and objectivity of judgment
8. To develop those personal qualities and emotional controls that will earn for him the admiration and liking of his associates and preserve his own self-respect
9. To grow in understanding and acceptance of persons or groups of differing racial, religious, and cultural backgrounds
10. To develop habits of good sportsmanship

Attempts to Formulate Specific Functions The past three decades have seen numerous attempts by educators and other national, state, and local leaders to discover the specific responsibilities of the secondary school. During the 1930's the Department of Secondary-School Principals (NEA) drew up the following list of specific issues in secondary education.

- I. Shall secondary education be provided at public expense for all normal individuals or for only a limited number?
- II. Shall secondary education seek to retain all pupils in school as long as they wish to remain, or shall it transfer them to other agencies under educational supervision when, in the judgment of the school authorities, these agencies promise to serve better the pupils' immediate and probable future needs?
- III. Shall secondary education be concerned only with the welfare and progress of the individual, or with these only as they promise to contribute to the welfare and progress of society?
- IV. Shall secondary education provide a common curriculum for all, or differentiated offerings?
- V. Shall secondary education include vocational training, or shall it be restricted to general education?
- VI. Shall secondary education be primarily directed toward prepa-

ration for advanced studies, or shall it be primarily concerned with the value of its own courses, regardless of a student's future academic career?

- VII. Shall secondary education accept conventional school subjects as fundamental categories under which school experiences shall be classified and presented to students, or shall it arrange and present experiences in fundamental categories directly related to the performance of such functions of secondary schools in a democracy as increasing the ability and the desire better to meet socio-civic, economic, health, leisure-time, vocational, and pre-professional problems and situations?
- VIII. Shall secondary education present merely organized knowledge, or shall it also assume responsibility for attitudes and ideals?
- IX. Shall secondary education seek merely the adjustment of students to prevailing social ideals, or shall it seek the reconstruction of society?
- X. Granting that education is a "gradual, continuous, unitary process," shall secondary education be presented merely as a phase of such a process, or shall it be organized as a distinct but closely articulating part of the entire educational program, with peculiarly emphasized functions of its own?¹

Satisfactory answers to these questions have not been found—perhaps definitive answers can never be found. Twelve years of schooling, rather than six to eight years, is now considered normal for most young Americans. Some specialized education is offered on the secondary-school level, especially during the eleventh and twelfth years. The trend, however, is toward encouraging high-school graduates to continue cultural or vocational study in two-year colleges, four-year colleges, higher-level technical schools, and universities.

Modern secondary schools are not only offering programs of enriched general education but are also helping pupils discover their individual potentialities and interests. The purposes and functions of the American secondary school are influenced greatly by national and world trends, such as expansion of scientific knowledge, furthering of intercultural relations, development of specialized occupations, and defense against aggression. A

¹ See Department of Secondary-School Principals, Bulletin No. 59, *Issues of Secondary Education*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., January, 1936, pp. 5-6.

changing world and increasing knowledge demand changes in curriculums and techniques.

Enrollment trends In this discussion, general enrollment trends in the secondary school are for the four-year high schools (grades 9-12); junior high schools were not established until the present century.

During the years 1890-1915, the number of high schools in the United States increased from 2,771 to 11,674, and the total enrollment from 202,963 to more than 1,300,000. Since 1915

Table 1. High-School Enrollment Trends, 1870-1970

School year	Enrollment in Public High Schools	Graduates of High Schools
1870	80,227	16,000
1880	110,227	23,634
1890	202,963	43,731
1900	519,251	94,883
1910	915,061	156,429
1920	2,200,389	311,266
1930	4,399,422	666,904
1940	6,601,444	1,221,575
1950	6,100,645	1,199,700
1958	7,399,000	1,333,500
1960*	9,200,000	1,800,000
1965*	10,820,000	2,200,000
1970*	12,000,000	3,000,000

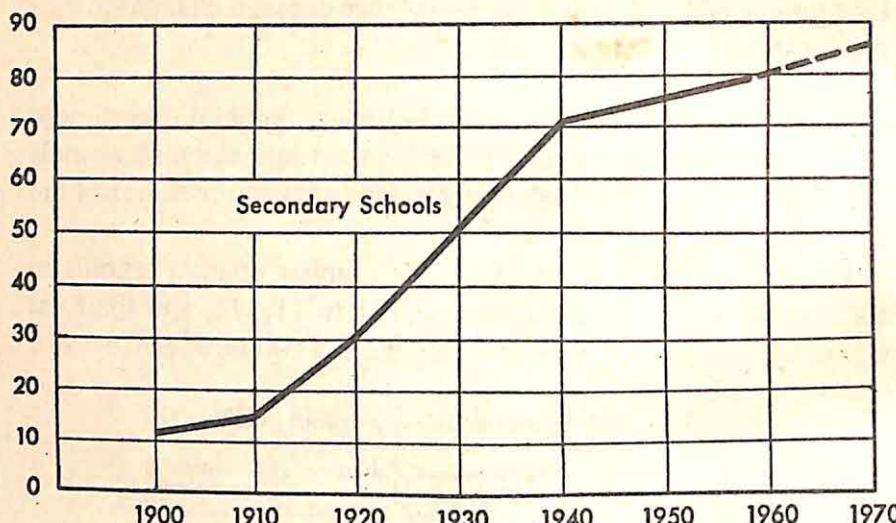
* Estimated

(Based on data from the United States Office of Education.)

there has been a steady increase in (1) the number of schools established, (2) the size of individual schools, and (3) the number of curricular offerings. By 1960, more than nine million pupils were enrolled in 28,000 public secondary schools. In addition, approximately one million young people attended parochial and private secondary schools. Table 1 shows the enrollment trend in public high schools since 1870.

The phenomenal growth in the high-school population is further indicated by the fact that the percentage of persons between the ages of 14 and 17 enrolled in secondary schools increased from 2.8 in 1880 to 78 in 1958. The percentage of 14 to 17 age population enrolled in high school by 1970 is likely to reach 85. (See Figure 1.)

At this point it may be interesting to compare the relative



* Estimated

(S. M. Lambert, *NEA Research Bulletin*, Vol. 36, No. 4, December, 1958, Research Division of the National Education Association, Washington, D.C., p. 125.)

Figure 1. Percentage of Children of Secondary-School Age (14-17 years) Enrolled in Secondary Schools in the United States since 1890

popularity of the Latin grammar school, the academy, and the public high school. These comparative data illustrate the development of secondary schools in America over a period of more than three hundred years. (See Figure 2.)

Diversity of the student population Secondary-school organization, curriculum patterns, and teaching-learning procedures are complicated by the need to provide suitable education for our large, heterogeneous school population, which includes pupils who differ from one another in cultural and economic background, in learning ability, and in emotional development. There is great diversity of vocational and avocational interest among secondary-school boys and girls. The average age of these young people is lower than it was formerly, but many bring to their secondary-school experiences a more mature attitude toward themselves and their relationships with other people than did secondary-school students in the past.

Attempts to Improve Secondary Education Continued attempts have been made to adjust secondary education to the needs of both the individual and society. In spite of noteworthy

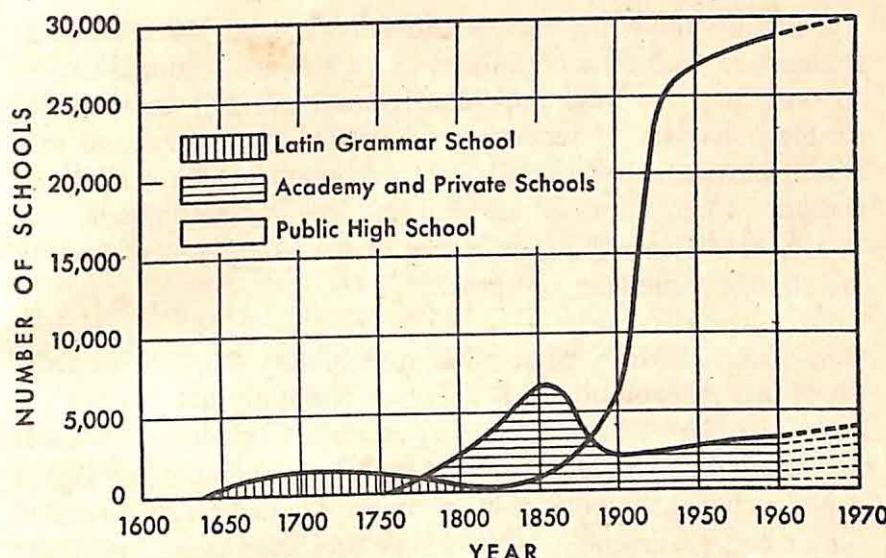


Figure 2. Development of Secondary Schools in America from 1635

progress during the last sixty years, earlier criticisms of the high school that were summarized in 1912 by Calvin O. Davis might easily be mistaken as a list from a current commentary.

1. The curriculum is overcrowded.
2. There is little correlation of subject matter.
3. Exaggerated attention is given to unessential and impractical topics.
4. Many topics presented have no legitimate place in any curriculum.
5. The study of many secondary subjects is postponed beyond the proper time for their best presentation.
6. There is no close articulation of the elementary school and the secondary school.
7. Individual tastes and capacities are not rightly considered.
8. Insufficient attention is paid to the retarded pupils and to those of superior ability.
9. There is not sufficient handwork.
10. Vocational work is not effectively vocational.
11. Promotions are based on an unsound principle.
12. The whole system is overmechanized.²

² Calvin O. Davis, *Our Evolving High School Curriculum*, World Book Co., Yonkers, 1927, p. 49. Printed originally in C. H. Johnston, ed., *High School Education*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1912, pp. 73-74.

Thinking about theories of education has not been lacking. Educational and civic organizations such as the National Council on Education have appointed committees (1) to state desirable objectives of secondary education, (2) to expand and enrich curricular offerings, (3) to reorganize school administration, (4) to improve teaching and learning techniques, and (5) to re-evaluate the significance of secondary education as a medium of American progress.

Current problems The modern secondary school is in process of further evolution; it is with this evolution that this book is concerned. How should secondary education be defined? What is the value of moving downward to include the seventh and eighth years of elementary education and upward to include the so-called junior college or community college and specialized institutes? What results can society expect from the public secondary school? To what extent is society willing and able to support secondary education? What are the needs and nature of the pupils? How successfully are modern secondary schools adapting their curriculum, their forms of organization and administration, their teaching techniques, and their general offerings to changing social economic and political needs?

Government offices, civic and educational organizations, boards of education, and administrative and supervisory staffs can utilize their training and experience to point the way; but it is the teacher, of course, who is primarily responsible for what happens educationally to his pupils as he works with them from day to day.

FORMULATION OF OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

It should be obvious that the objectives of secondary education cannot be considered apart from general educational goals. In general, educational goals should be (1) achievable in varying degrees by all pupils, according to individual capacity to achieve, (2) fitted to the needs and interests of each individual, (3) aimed at adequate adjustment of every individual in all areas of human relationships, (4) thoroughly understood

by the teachers, and (5) flexible enough to reflect changing life conditions. The purposes of the secondary school differ from the goals of the elementary school in that the secondary schools *build upon* rather than merely add to what has gone before in attempts to realize the "liberal" and practical educational objectives of self-realization, of good human relationships, of economic efficiency, and of civic responsibility.³ Constructors of secondary-school objectives, recognizing the continuity of the educational process, are concerned with the problem of meeting the general as well as the specific learning needs of developing adolescents. Sets of secondary-school objectives continue to be formulated to facilitate the attainment of educational goals and to provide for new educational challenges.

Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education The work done during the last decade of the nineteenth century by the National Education Association's Committee of Ten and Committee on College Entrance Requirements resulted in a certain amount of "housecleaning" and standardization. Continued dissatisfaction with existing conditions in the high schools led to the appointment (1912) by the National Education Association of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The Commission devoted six years to an extensive analysis of (1) the needs of American youth, (2) the civic and social purposes that should be served by the schools, and (3) the status of existing high-school offerings. Then, in 1918, the Commission submitted its report entitled *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. Included in the report was a list of seven objectives basic to education on the secondary level.

These objectives, commonly referred to as the "Seven Cardinal Principles," have come to be accepted as general educational objectives for all school levels.

The seven objectives are:

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership

³ See statement of the Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1938, pp. 47-108.

4. Vocation
5. Citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character

The Commission's views on these topics are indicated in the following comments:

1. **Health.** "The secondary school should . . . provide health instruction, inculcate health habits, organize an effective program of physical activities, regard health needs in planning work and play, and cooperate with home and community in safeguarding and promoting health interest."
2. **Command of fundamental processes.** Although acquaintance with the tools of learning is a fundamental objective of the elementary school, "the facility that a child of 12 or 14 may acquire in the use of these tools is not sufficient for the needs of modern life." The high school should develop further power in the use of these tools.
3. **Worthy home membership.** This objective involves "development of those qualities that make the individual a worthy member of a family, both contributing to and deriving benefits from that membership."
4. **Vocation.** "Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him, to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain right relationships toward his fellow workers and society, and, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best capacities and aptitudes."
5. **Citizenship.** "Civic education should develop in the individual those qualities whereby he will act well his part as a member of neighborhood, town or city, state, and nation, and give him a basis for understanding international problems."
6. **Worthy use of leisure.** "Education should equip the individual to secure from his leisure the recreation of body, mind, and spirit and the enrichment and enlargement of his personality."
7. **Ethical character.** "In a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among the objectives of the secondary school." Secondary education should develop "on the part of the pupils the sense of personal responsibility and initiative, and above all, the spirit of service and the principles of true democracy which should permeate the entire school—principal, teachers, and pupils."⁴

⁴ Summarized from *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918, pp. 5-10.

The Seven Cardinal Principles continue to be pertinent in the development of American school policy. The fundamental worth of the objectives is recognized, but their interpretation has been broadened somewhat as psychological, sociological and educational research has increased our understanding of human nature. Teaching-learning approaches to the realization of these objectives also have undergone various changes. Yet a review of the many succeeding formulations of secondary-school objectives indicate that they have been based largely on the Seven Cardinal Principles.

Subsequent Statements of Objectives In 1928 the Department of Superintendence of the NEA recommended that the purposes of the high school should be the following:

To promote the development of an understanding and an adequate evaluation of the self.

To promote the development of an understanding and an appreciation of the world of nature.

To promote the development of an understanding and an appreciation of organized society.

To promote an appreciation of the force of law and of love that is operating universally.⁵

Five years later (1933), a committee appointed by the NEA and consisting of an educational philosopher, a professor of law, a sociologist, and three educators, stated that American education on all levels should be directed toward the achievement of the following ten socio-economic goals:

1. Hereditary strength	6. Economic security
2. Physical security	7. Mental security
3. Participation in an evolving culture	8. Equality of opportunity
4. An active, flexible personality	9. Freedom
5. Suitable occupation	10. Fair play ⁶

⁵ National Education Association, *The High School Curriculum*, Sixth Year-book, 1928, Washington, D.C., p. 51.

⁶ National Education Association, Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America, *The Social-Economic Goals of America*. The Association, Washington, D.C., 1933.

Writing in 1937 for the American Council on Education, Harl Douglass said:

1. Each individual must be in effect a citizen whether he is an alien or a national. He will be a member of many groups cooperating for mutual benefit and for the benefit of society—local, national, civic, recreational, economic, religious, and many other types. The school should play a major part in preparing him to participate effectively in these group activities and to assist in giving direction to them.
2. The home may be singled out for special consideration because of its peculiar function and significance in human life. The fact that direct preparation for participation in this primary social unit has never been thoroughly attempted in the school is neither a valid indication that preparation for those activities making for happy and effective homes is not of first rank importance, nor evidence that schools have not made indirectly a very material contribution in that direction.
3. All people should be educated to the effective use of recreation. The increasing need for attention to the development of tastes, skills, interests, and habits which will insure happy enjoyment of leisure time is hardly debatable.
4. Practically all persons must engage in service to others as a means of obtaining a share in the total goods and services available to society and all such need preparation for vocational life. In addition to the objectives of education suggested by these four types of activities, which are to some extent mutually exclusive, there are three other objectives which must be kept clearly in view:
 5. Physical health.
 6. Effective and healthy personality and individuality.
 7. The development of such information, interests, and skills as will prepare young people for continued study—in college and throughout life.⁷

The report of the Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society*, published in 1945, recommends that all students on the secondary and higher educational levels receive both a general and a specialized education. Emphasis is placed on developing the traits or characteristics of the mind through a program of general education: "These abilities . . . are: to

⁷ Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1937, pp. 13-14.

think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values."⁸ According to the report, "special education comprises a wider field than vocationalism; and correspondingly, general education extends beyond the limits of mere literary preoccupation."⁹ The relationship between the two kinds of education is described thus: "General education can be compared to the trunk of a tree from which branches, representing specialism, go off at different heights, at high school or junior college or college or graduate school—the points, that is, at which various groups end their formal schooling."¹⁰

The needs of youth The March, 1947, issue of the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is devoted to a consideration of the "Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age." The report of the committee that made this study included a statement of what the members considered ten imperative adolescent needs—guideposts, of course, to program.

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experiences as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupation.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of a citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation and of the world.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and

⁸ Reprinted by permission of the publishers from *General Education in a Free Society: Report of the Harvard Committee*, pp. 64-5, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, Copyright, 1945, by The President and Fellows of Harvard College.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 55.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 102.

services intelligently, understanding both the value received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.
7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.¹¹

Behavioral goals of education A list of behavioral goals for general education on the secondary level was published in 1957. The report represents the culmination of a project sponsored by the Russell Sage Foundation, the Educational Testing Service, and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The major categories of the report are presented below.

1. Growing Toward Self-Realization
 - 1.1 Developing Behavior Indicative of Intellectual Self-Realization
 - 1.2 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Cultural Orientation and Integration
 - 1.3 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Personal, Mental and Physical Health
 - 1.4 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Economic Literacy and Independence
2. Growing in Ability to Maintain Desirable Small (Face to Face) Group Relationships
 - 2.1 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Intellectual Growth and Development

¹¹ The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, "Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age," *Bulletin*, Vol. 31, No. 145, March, 1947, entire issue. See also The Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth: A Further Look*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1952, p. 216.

- 2.2 Developing Behaviors in Small Group Situations Indicative of Cultural Orientation and Integration
- 2.3 Developing Behaviors Involved in Maintaining Physical and Mental Health and Safety in Small (Face to Face) Group Situations
- 2.4 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Economic Competence and Independence in Small Group Situations
- 3. Growing in Ability to Maintain the Relationships Imposed by Membership in Large Organizations
 - 3.1 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Intellectual Growth and Development
 - 3.2 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Cultural Organization and Integration
 - 3.3 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Understanding Problems of Mental and Physical Health
 - 3.4 Developing Behaviors Indicative of Growth Toward Economic Competence and Independence.¹²

Aims of the secondary schools of Cleveland The process of preparing a statement of the objectives for the Cleveland secondary schools was initiated by a central committee of junior and senior high-school principals with the addition of two supervisors of instruction in subject fields and the assistant superintendent in charge of secondary schools and curriculum. This committee was to draft a preliminary statement to be discussed and revised by teachers in the junior and senior high schools.

The ideas came from many sources. They were suggested by professional publications, by statements in the current curriculum guides (see Chapter 3) which had been developed by committees of classroom teachers, by statements of objectives several of the Cleveland high schools had prepared for their own use. The actual teaching and administrative experience of members of the committee was a further resource.

The tentative statement of philosophy and objectives was sent to each school, with the understanding that the teachers would discuss the draft freely and propose improvements. The additions, revisions, and deletions were then collected so that they could be

¹² W. French and associates, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School*, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1957, pp. 92-213.

incorporated in the statement. It was understood that individual schools would prepare additional objectives to suit the needs of their particular student populations. Finally, the philosophy and objectives were stated in this form:

**PHILOSOPHY AND PURPOSES OF THE
CLEVELAND JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS**

The purposes of education are determined primarily by the nature of our society and the needs of the individual learner in that society.

All educable children—the talented, the average, and the less gifted—have a right to an education which will help guide and develop their various abilities and interests and which will help them develop mentally, morally, physically, and socially. Therefore, in our democratic society it is necessary to plan and administer the educational program so that each individual can develop to the fullest extent of his capabilities and can make his maximum contribution to society.

The aims and purposes of secondary education in the Cleveland Public Schools include the providing of opportunities to enable each junior and senior high school pupil

1. To continue the development of his skills in the fundamental learnings
2. To develop a healthy mind and body
3. To understand and exercise the duties and responsibilities of democratic citizenship with emphasis on respect for and obedience to law
4. To understand and appreciate our heritage and its influence on present-day life
5. To develop an understanding of human relations and an attitude of respect for the worth of each individual regardless of race, creed, and social or economic status
6. To understand and appreciate the importance of successful family life for the individual and for society
7. To develop a sense of social responsibility extending from the local to the world community and to make appropriate contributions through service and material gifts
8. To develop character through experiences that will teach moral and ethical values consistent with our democratic tradition
9. To make decisions, with due recognition of his strengths and weaknesses, regarding the selection of an

occupation in which he will be socially useful, economically efficient, and from which he can derive personal satisfaction

10. To develop useful, marketable skills that will enable him to participate in economically productive activities
11. To develop those understandings and personality traits that will enable him to work harmoniously with others
12. To establish habits and ideals that contribute to a wholesome mental attitude toward himself, his family, his associates, his occupation, his community, and his country
13. To develop techniques and understandings that will help him to be a discerning consumer
14. To develop appreciation for literature, art, music, and other aesthetic experiences
15. To learn ways of using leisure time that will contribute to his own wholesome recreation or to the benefit of others

Priority of objectives In his MoBride Lecture "Next Steps in Education," presented at Cleveland in 1959, Paul Woodring stressed the need for schools to decide on a clear order of priority in the educational activities for which they are responsible. He suggested the following classification:

Lowest group—Those activities essentially recreational in nature; extracurricular, but not co-curricular.

Second group—Those activities having unquestioned social value, but not exclusively the province of the school. Some types of vocational training, best learned on the job, may be such.

Third group—Those activities clearly educational in nature, which contribute to national welfare, but which are not needed by all. Nuclear physics and calculus may fall in this group.

Highest group—Those activities essential to all free men and women in a free society. Included among the primary teaching responsibilities of the school are: learning to read with understanding, understanding political traditions, making sound value judgments through literature, understanding mathematical concepts—not merely manipulating numbers, reading statistics with

understanding, communicating with one's fellowmen with understanding and clarity.

Recent Statements of the Goals of Secondary Education In accordance with their belief that the public secondary school should guarantee each young American an opportunity to achieve self-realization and social effectiveness, the compilers of the thirty-sixth yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators have presented the following statement of the goals for secondary education:

The maximum development of all the mental, moral, emotional, and physical powers of the individual, to the end that he may enjoy a rich life thru the realization of worthy and desirable personal goals, and

The maximum development of the ability and desire in each individual to make the greatest possible contribution to all humanity thru responsible participation in, and benefit from, the great privileges of American citizenship.¹³

In *The American High School Today*, James B. Conant stresses the educational advantages of a comprehensive high school. Conant says

the three main objectives of a comprehensive high school are: *first*, to provide a general education for all the future citizens; *second*, to provide good elective programs for those who wish to use their acquired skills immediately on graduation; *third*, to provide satisfactory programs for those whose vocations will depend on their subsequent education in a college or university.¹⁴

Dr. Conant prepared the following list:

A CHECK LIST TO ASSIST IN EVALUATING A COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL

- A. Adequacy of general education for all as judged by:
 - 1. Offerings in English and American literature and composition
 - 2. Social studies, including American history
 - 3. Ability grouping in required courses

¹³ *The High School in a Changing World*, Thirty-sixth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, Washington 5, D.C.; 1958, p. 28.

¹⁴ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1959, p. 17. By permission of the author.

- B. Adequacy of nonacademic elective program as judged by:
 - 4. The vocational programs for boys and commercial programs for girls
 - 5. Opportunities for supervised work experience
 - 6. Special provisions for very slow readers
- C. Special arrangements for the academically talented students:
 - 7. Special provisions for challenging the highly gifted
 - 8. Special instruction in developing reading skills
 - 9. Summer sessions from which able students may profit
 - 10. Individualized programs (absence of tracks or rigid programs)
 - 11. School day organized into seven or more instructional periods
- D. Other features:
 - 12. Adequacy of the guidance service
 - 13. Student morale
 - 14. Well-organized homerooms
 - 15. The success of the school in promoting an understanding between students with widely different academic abilities and vocational goals (effective social interaction among students).¹⁵

Education As Our First Line of Defense As these words are written, the nations of the world shiver in the grip of a "cold war." Relative destructive might and shifts in power force us to review old values, old ways of doing things. Is Russia ahead of us in scientific technology? Even the fear of such a possibility sends us craning our necks into the corners of the classroom. "What haven't these people been teaching here while our backs were turned?"

One of the most vehement critics of present-day American educational ideals is Vice-Admiral H. G. Rickover, USN. In a series of his published speeches there appears the following comment concerning educational objectives:

The consequence of technological progress is that man must use his mind more and his body less. We still think in terms of a more primitive era; we overvalue physical prowess and undervalue intellectual competence. This has a profound effect on our attitudes toward education. The kind of school which prepares young people adequately

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 19-20.

for life in a less complicated environment is of little use today. Nor do we need schools that concentrate primarily on adjusting the children of immigrants to this new country; on helping them become Americans quickly and painlessly. Today we must have schools which develop in all children—talented, average, and below average—the highest level of intellectual competence of which they are capable; schools that help young people to understand the complex world of today and how it came to be what it is. This means that our schools must return to the traditional task of formal education in Western civilization—transmission of the nation's cultural heritage, and preparation for life through rigorous training of young minds to think clearly, logically, and independently.¹⁶

Mr. Rickover may be right, but we should remember that he has spent most of his life thinking about military, not educational matters. Education is one of those areas, like government and music, in which every man is inclined to be his own doctor—and to prescribe heavily in case of emergency!

The resolution of world problems may indeed depend on how good our education becomes. And the efforts of educators may well be impeded in the future—as they have been in the past—by the unwillingness of our people to pay anything like a reasonable price for a good educational system. But if education does meet this greatest of all challenges in our history, it will probably do so because of the work of earnest men and women long experienced in thinking of educational problems.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why do elementary-school graduates have ambivalent feelings toward entering secondary school? What was your experience?
2. Show by examples that a nation's economy is a factor in the extension of education.
3. Justify the statement that building a curriculum for all social classes is extremely complex.
4. Review the general goals of secondary education listed in the chapter. In the light of your own secondary school experience arrange the goals in order of your evaluation of your school's success in achieving them.

¹⁶ H. G. Rickover, *Education and Freedom*, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1959, pp. 17-18.

5. From the list of issues presented by the officers of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, select the five which you think are most significant. Defend your opinion.
6. In many states, young people are required by law to remain in school until they are at least sixteen years of age. Some school people favor reducing the school-leaving age to fourteen; others would advance it to eighteen. What do you think should be done? Offer specific evidence for your opinion.
7. Reread Davis's criticisms of the high school in 1912. Which of them do you believe still are valid? Explain.
8. Why do secondary-school teachers need to understand the changes that have taken place in educational goals over the years?
9. Give an example of a change in living conditions that might necessitate a change in secondary-school objectives.
10. Select a secondary school in your community. Check the offerings of the school and evaluate them in the light of the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.
11. Give examples of the ways in which the Cardinal Principles can be applied at all school levels.
12. Compare the statements of other secondary-school objectives with the Cardinal Principles. Note the likenesses and differences among them.
13. In the light of your experiences as a secondary-school student, and those of your friends, rearrange the needs of youth (page 43) according to your best judgment of their relative importance.
14. Select one of the behavioral goals of education. How can the secondary school help students develop the kind of behavior indicated as a desirable outcome of education?
15. Evaluate critically Conant's three main objectives of a comprehensive high school. In your opinion what should be included in a school's curriculum to meet each of the stated objectives?
16. List ten rights and ten responsibilities of adolescents as citizens of a democracy.

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3

Organization and Financing of Secondary Education

The expansion of secondary-school objectives to meet the educational needs and interests of a growing and diversified student population has been accompanied by much experimentation with the organization or structure of secondary education. Organizational planning is based on the premise that a school's structure is a means whereby the educational purposes of a school or a school system can be achieved. Two important aspects of school organization are the vertical or grade organization of educational levels and the internal organization of a school's program and procedures. The kind and extent of innovation possible in the organizational pattern of a school or a school system depends in great part on budgetary provision for proposed changes in existing structures.

VERTICAL OR GRADE ORGANIZATION

According to the ladder system of American education, an individual progresses, grade by grade, through the elementary and the secondary school to institutions of higher learning or directly into an occupation. The generally accepted sequence below the college level, at the beginning of the twentieth century, was an eight-year elementary curriculum to provide the so-called fundamentals of education, followed by a four-year high-school course. Since that time, dissatisfaction with the 8-4 plan has led to experimentation with various other forms, such as the 6-2-4, 6-3-3, 6-6, 6-3-3-2, 6-4-4, and 7-5. (The numerals represent the number of school years for each level. See Figure 3.)

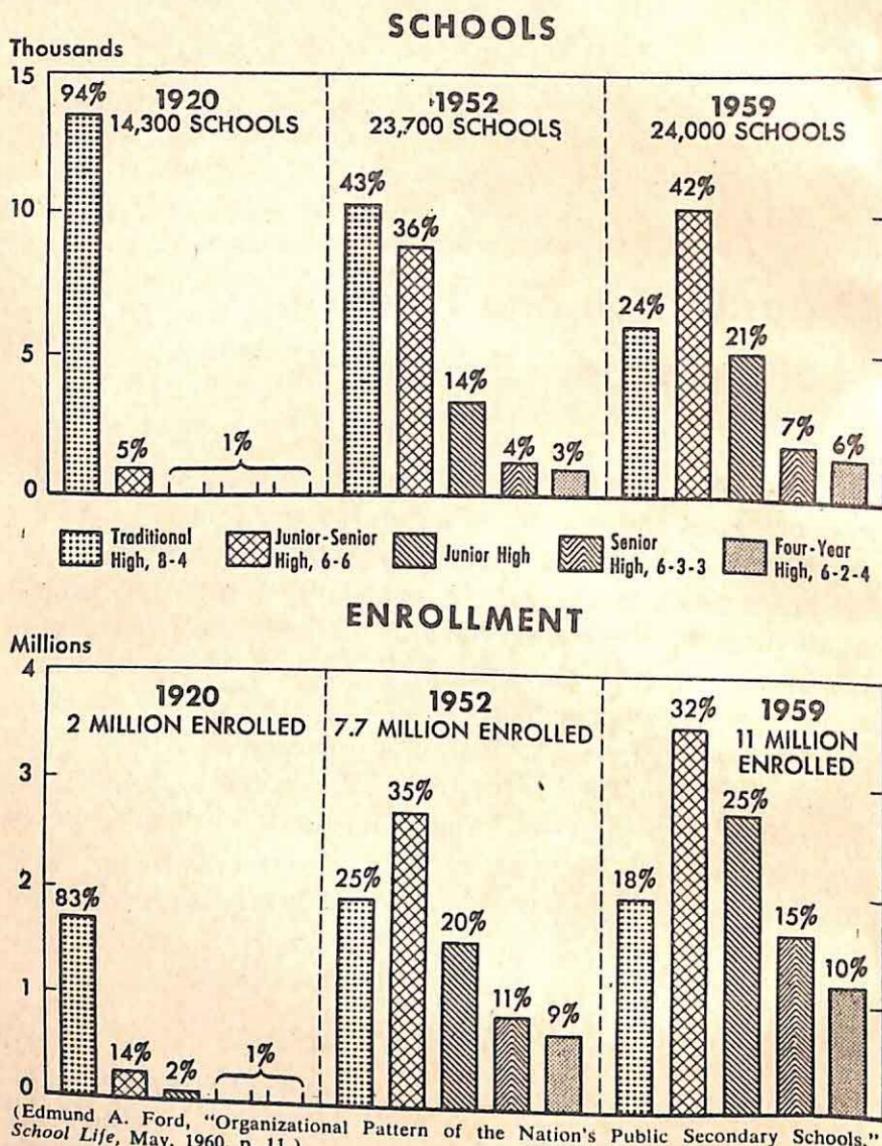


Figure 3. Types of Organization of Secondary Schools

The 8-4 Plan The 8-4 plan of organization is found in many communities, especially the smaller school systems. Chicago's is one of the large city school systems that has retained the 8-4 organization. This type of organizational structure, however, has come under criticism for many years. One of the first exponents of change in educational organization was Charles Eliot

of Harvard University. In 1888, Eliot suggested that it might be desirable to condense school courses so that time could be gained by those looking forward to many years of college and professional training. It must be remembered that the colleges of that era were almost completely academic in purpose and curriculum, and that professional training had to be added to the previous sixteen years of schooling.

A significant weakness of the 8-4 organization during the early 1900's was the school's inability to hold young adolescents. There were no compulsory school attendance laws; the number of drop-outs in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades totalled more than 50 per cent. The high rate of school mortality can be accounted for in several ways. Some parents withdrew their children from school to work on the farm or to serve apprenticeships in industry.

In many eight-year elementary schools, all of the teaching in each grade was conducted by one teacher. Because of the departmentalized organization of the high school, each subject was taught by a separate teacher. Some high-school entrants found it difficult to adjust to five or more different teaching approaches. In addition, the change from the relatively sheltered environment of a neighborhood elementary school to a high school was great; the high school often was in a distant section of the city, or in another town; the school routine, the classes, and the teachers were quite different from those of the grammar school. These differences were a strain on some students.

The 6-2-4 Plan Research in child development resulted in the conclusion that the preadolescent and the young adolescent would benefit from teaching-learning experiences that took into consideration the development of differences in personality patterns. The high number of drop-outs in the seventh and eighth grades led to the conclusion that these pupils should be taught by people better trained to work with this age group than the teachers of younger children. In some school systems, the teaching of various subjects in the seventh and eighth years was organized according to departments, in the belief that such organization would better prepare the young adolescent for what he was to find in high school.

The 6-3-3 Plan This elementary-junior-senior high-school plan of organization is based on the special characteristics, needs, and interests of younger adolescents. During the age range from about twelve to fourteen years, boys and girls experience problems associated with the changes that are taking place as they develop from children to more mature adolescents.

Before the 6-3-3 plan received general acceptance, ten years of study and discussion had been conducted by educational commissions concerned with the improvement of teaching in the last two years of the eight-year elementary school and the first year of the four-year high school. About 1913, a set of resolutions adopted by the University of Michigan and approved by the Board of Regents began with the following recommendations:

1. That school authorities be encouraged to incorporate the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school as an integral part of the high school system, forming a six-year system.
2. That school authorities be recommended to organize the six-year high school system into a Junior High School of three years and a Senior High School of three years as soon as local conditions will admit.¹

A plan for the organization of a 6-3-3 educational pattern was contained in the recommendations of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1918):

We, therefore, recommend a reorganization of the school system whereby the first six years shall be devoted to elementary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 6-12 years of age; and the second six years to secondary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 12-18 years of age.

We recommend that secondary schools admit, and provide suitable instruction for, all pupils who are in any respect so mature that they would derive more benefit from the secondary school than from the elementary school.

This commission holds that education should be so reorganized that every normal boy and girl will be encouraged to remain in school to the age of 18, on full time if possible, otherwise on part time.²

¹ *Proceedings of the Board of Regents*, University of Michigan, 1910-1914, p. 1021.

² *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918, pp. 18, 19, and 30.

As a matter of fact, pioneers in the field had started a new type of organization before the preceding sets of recommendations were published. Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio established junior high schools during the school year 1909-10, with Los Angeles following suit in 1911. By 1913-14, there were junior high schools in 167 cities having a population of 2,500 or over; by 1922, 456 cities had established at least 733 such schools. Today there are more than 130 junior high schools in New York City alone.

Those who during the first quarter of the century advocated the establishment of the junior high school believed that it would (1) ease the transition from elementary school to high school, (2) help the young adolescent make adjustments to his new status, (3) assist the less able as well as the superior pupil in his learning activities, (4) keep the young person in school, and (5) save time for those who planned to continue their education. In some junior high schools, the pupils were offered trials in various vocational areas to help them discover their abilities and interests in those activities. Introductions to new fields not offered in the eight-year elementary school facilitated young people's planning their senior high school programs of study.

After more than a half century of experimentation with the 6-3-3 plan, some school people who at one time were enthusiastic about this pattern of organization are beginning to question its educational value. They believe now that a young person between the ages of eleven and fifteen is hurt by having to make adjustments to two different types of schools (the junior high school and then the senior high school) during this period. In fact, some believe that the problem of juvenile delinquency might be alleviated somewhat by a return to the 8-4 plan of organization.

The 6-6 Plan of Organization In some communities the school population is not large enough to warrant separate buildings for each unit of a 6-3-3 organization. Here the 6-6 plan (grades one through six in the elementary school, and grades seven through twelve in the secondary school) has become popular. In towns able to afford it, the two units are housed in separate buildings. There still are some small communities for which regional high schools have not been established and in which grades

one through twelve are housed in the same building and organized as a single administrative unit.

The advantages of the 6-6 plan include improved administration and articulation of subject areas, economy of space and equipment, and greater opportunities for vocational training. There are disadvantages in the use of any organizational pattern, however, if all grades from the first through the twelfth are combined as one administrative unit. The younger children may be denied participation in out-of-class activities enjoyed by the pupils of the upper grades, such as athletics and pupil government, as well as participation in activities suited to childhood needs and interests.

The 8-4-2 or 6-3-3-2 Plan of Organization There is a growing trend toward an extension of the 6-3-3 and the 6-6 plans of organization into an 8-4-2 or 6-3-3-2 plan. Under this plan, after twelve years of schooling through the last year of senior high school, the high-school graduate continues in a two-year community or junior college or two-year institute. The community or junior college offers either a general liberal arts program in preparation for admission to the third year of a four-year college or two years of terminal vocational education. Some of the two-year terminal institutes are housed in vocational high-school buildings.

The Junior College (Community College) The University of Chicago was the first to have the junior college; it established a junior and a senior college in 1896. The public junior college had its inception in 1902, when a junior college was organized at Joliet, Illinois. In 1907, California enacted legislation which provided for the establishment of public junior colleges.

The growth of junior colleges has been phenomenal. The number of institutions and their enrollments are shown in Tables 2 and 3. There are now junior colleges in nearly every state.

The junior college has a broad function: to provide for its students occupational competence and general education. It is designed also to provide continuing education for adults. Most of these institutions also offer work acceptable for transfer to four-

Table 2. Growth in Number of Junior Colleges 1900-1960

Year	Total	Public	Private
1900-01	8	0	8
1915-16	74	19	55
1921-22	207	70	137
1925-26	325	136	189
1929-30	436	178	258
1933-34	521	219	302
1938-39	575	258	317
1947-48	651	328	323
1952-53	594	327	267
1953-54	598	338	260
1954-55	596	336	260
1955-56	635	363	272
1956-57	652	377	275
1957-58	667	391	276
1958-59	677	400	277
1959-60 *	680	400	280

(Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., "Analysis of Junior College Growth," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XXIX, No. 6, February, 1959, p. 357. Also the 1960 Junior College Directory.) * Estimated

Table 3. Growth in Junior College Enrollment, 1900-1960

Year	Total	Public	Private
1900-01	100	0	100
1915-16	2,363	592	1,771
1921-22	16,031	8,349	7,682
1925-26	35,630	20,145	15,485
1929-30	74,088	45,021	29,067
1933-34	107,807	74,853	32,954
1938-39	196,710	140,545	56,165
1947-48	500,536	378,844	121,692
1951-52	572,193	495,766	76,427
1952-53	560,732	489,563	71,169
1953-54	622,864	553,008	69,856
1954-55	696,321	618,000	78,321
1955-56	765,551	683,129	82,422
1956-57	869,720	776,493	93,227
1957-58	892,642	793,105	99,537
1958-59	905,062	806,849	98,213
1959-60 *	950,000	845,000	105,000

(*Ibid.*, p. 358.) * Estimated

year colleges or universities. In fact, many junior colleges evaluate their success by the number of their graduates who have entered four-year colleges and who have succeeded there. One such study completed by Compton College gives the results shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of Institutional Follow-up Including Years 1939-1946
Compared with Years 1946-1956

College or University	Number of Compton Students Transferring		Compton Grade Point Average		University or College Grade Point Average†	
	1939-46	1946-56	1939-46	1946-56	1939-46	1946-56*
Universities	513	1,530	1.49	1.39	1.36	1.27
Four-Year Colleges	72	275	1.43	1.41	1.75	1.46
State Colleges	83	733	1.06	1.35	1.39	1.33
Junior Colleges	117	394	.72	1.10	1.41	1.40
U.C.L.A.	194		1.58		1.19	
U.C. at Berkeley	74		1.60		1.41	
U.S.C.	209		1.39		1.47	
Stanford	8		1.54		1.44	
Redlands	21		1.45		1.50	
Santa Barbara	62		1.05		1.36	

† Grade Points: A = 3; B = 2; C = 1; D = 0. * "Here is Something We Are Proud Of . . .," *Compton College*, May, 1949, pp. 3-4. Data supplied by Compton College.

Among the more specific aims of the junior college are the following:

1. To provide pre-professional educational opportunities
2. To allow high-school graduates to spend their first two years of college in their home environment
3. To encourage individuals who are not interested in a four-year college course to continue their education beyond the secondary level
4. To individualize instruction
5. To provide opportunities for more intensive student guidance and exploration than may be possible in a four-year college

The need of some form of higher education for those secondary-school graduates who are unable or unwilling to complete a four-year college course has long been recognized. Although some large-city schools offer vocational training, usually more intensive training is needed for job competence. The extension upward of education through community junior colleges and technical institutes is a step toward meeting the needs of many who cannot or do not care to go to the four-year college.

The 6-4-4 Plan of Organization As early as 1915 the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools advocated an organization that would comprise six years of elementary

school; four years of lower secondary school, to include grades seven through ten; and four years of upper secondary school, to include grades eleven through fourteen. This means, of course, the addition to the regular high-school course of the first two years of college work. The 6-4-4 plan of organization has been adopted by some educational systems, outstanding among them the University of Chicago. The students at the University who participate in this program receive a bachelor's degree at the completion of the fourteenth year. Those who have experimented with this form of organization consider it both economical and effective. The early admissions experiment also is considered successful by those colleges which are experimenting with it. (See Chapter 5.)

The student who receives a bachelor's degree at the end of fourteen years of study sometimes has trouble getting admitted to the graduate division of a university in which the completion of four years of undergraduate college study is an entrance requirement. Some graduate schools accept such an applicant if he performs satisfactorily on a rigid entrance examination; others require the applicant to complete specified prerequisites before he is given matriculation status.

The 7-5 Plan of Organization The 7-5 plan of organization now is the official policy of the State of Virginia. Problems of adjustment were created by the 6-3-3 type of organization. It is believed that the 7-5 plan reduces the number of school adjustments required of the pupils. If, as Conant believes, the eighth grade is the crucial time for decision making and exploration, this type of organization may provide the necessary flexibility to meet these problems for many students. If this state-wide experiment is successful, other cities or states may want to establish the 7-5 plans of organization.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF A SECONDARY SCHOOL

To be effective, a school's program of activities must be so organized that *every* student can benefit from it. Provision should be made for the following:

1. The arrangement of the school's program in accordance with health and safety regulations

2. The development of appropriate and well-organized curricular offerings
3. The utilization of special talents among the school personnel
4. The establishment of a functional guidance program
5. The encouragement of a varied program of out-of-class activities and pupil participation in school government
6. Careful handling of pupil absence and tardiness
7. Maximum use of all rooms and facilities
8. Orderly management of the school plant
9. Co-operation with parents and with the community as a whole
10. Proper publicizing of the work of the school

The structuring of the educational activities of a secondary school becomes, for the most part, the administrative responsibility of the chief executive of the school or the school principal, assisted by appropriate staff members. Fundamental to the planning of a school's organizational pattern are its avowed educational purposes or functions; other considerations are state requirements and local adaptations of state regulations, aspects of organization common to all the secondary schools in a school system, and size of the school.

Adherence to State Law The school's organizational planning must take into account certain minimal requirements prescribed by state law: length of school year and school day, school attendance regulations, and graduation requirements. Local school systems must meet state minimum requirements and can add to them if they desire.

Length of school year The number of days that schools are in session each year is set by state law. The length of the yearly session in a state varies with its economic status and its labor needs. Some educators favor a school year of 190 days. In the poorer states, where farming is one of the chief occupations, not only are many communities financially unable to provide for more than a minimum school year, but many farmers need the help of their older children on their farms, especially during

spring planting. Wealthier industrial states can afford a longer school year.

The average school year in the United States has risen from 132 days in 1869-70 to approximately 180 days in 1959-60. Several states are attempting to reach or exceed the 190-day goal and the number of states that have fewer than 175 days in the school year is decreasing.

Length of school day Most states require a school day of six hours. Exceptions are Delaware and Maine, each requiring seven fifty-minute periods, with Maine permitting eight fifty-minute periods. A school system has freedom to plan its activities during the prescribed time the school is to be open on each school day.

Compulsory attendance laws All states have established laws setting the age limits for compulsory school attendance. In most states, the legal age for leaving school is sixteen; a few states—California, Ohio, Idaho, and Utah—have raised it to eighteen. In most states, sixteen-year-olds may engage in relatively restricted industrial work and other forms of gainful occupation. Many secondary schools attempt to organize their curriculum offerings so that those pupils who plan to drop out of school at age sixteen will have received some training in basic work skills.

Graduation requirements Every community wants its secondary schools to meet standards set by state and regional accrediting agencies. The findings of a recent study made by the United States Office of Education of the graduation requirements in 36 states are presented here.

SUBJECTS REQUIRED OF ALL PUPILS 36 STATES

Included by 36 States under either program of studies or requirements for graduation are the subjects which the State authorities require that every pupil must take in order to be graduated from high school. According to a study by the Office of Education published in 1949 all States but one make such requirements of their schools. That study reported that the number of required units in 47 States ranged from a total of $\frac{1}{2}$ in Michigan to 11 in Missouri. In the present

analysis of standards in the 36 States including this item the range is from 3 units in New Jersey, to 11 in Missouri and North Dakota. Six States require 3-5½ units; 21 States require 6-8; and 9 States require 9-11. These requirements, or constants are in the following subjects or subject areas:

Subject	Number of units	Number of States
English.....	4	13
Do.....	3	23
Social Studies.....	3	9
Do.....	2-2½	16
Do.....	1	11
Science.....	2	7
Do.....	1	18
Mathematics.....	1½-2	2
Do.....	1	21
Health, or physical education, or health and physical education.....	½-4	21
Home economics (girls).....	1	2
Occupational guidance.....	½	1
Vocational subjects.....	½	1
Fine arts.....	1	1
Practical arts.....	1	2

One to four years of physical education or health and physical education are required in 27 of the 36 States and strongly recommended in 4 more. Credit may or may not be granted for physical education courses. Usually when allowed, the credit is 1 unit for 4 years of work. Alabama provides for one-fourth unit each year when the teacher is not a certified physical education teacher and one-half unit each year if he is fully qualified. When a school grants more than 1 unit, the additional units in nearly every instance must be over and above the basic 16 required for graduation. Oregon, for example, grants 4 units for health and physical education, but fixes its graduation requirement at 19 units. New Mexico, however, permits a pupil to earn two units of credit and does not specify that one of these must be in addition to the 16 required for graduation.

The science requirement may or may not specify laboratory science. The Arizona State Board of Education lifted its requirement for a "laboratory" science to make possible the employment of individual and demonstration techniques in teaching science.

American history is one of the required units in social studies. Frequently mentioned also are civics or citizenship, the Constitution, and State history. English requirements sometimes permit variables such as debate, journalism, drama, or speech to be substituted for a year's requirement of regular English. Laws of the States frequently provide for instruction in special subjects such as the nature and effect of alcoholic drinks and narcotics. These requirements may or may not be included as part of the State standards.³

Common Aspects of Internal Organization Many aspects of organization are common to all secondary schools: assigning administrative, supervisory, and other personnel responsibilities; arranging teachers' and pupils' programs; setting class size; planning testing programs; recording and reporting learning progress; providing guidance and counseling services. These activities are discussed in later chapters.

Differences in Organization Existing differences in organizational patterns are caused partly by differences in the opinions of secondary-school leaders on such matters as the relationship between administrative and teaching responsibilities, kind and amount of testing needed, effective methods of recording and reporting pupil progress, and appropriate functions of school guidance personnel. In addition, public interest in secondary education, as evidenced by the willingness of the people to support secondary schools, determines the extent to which provision can be made for an appropriate number of adequately trained school personnel, a properly planned and well-equipped school plant, and a sufficient supply of textbooks, library material, and other teaching-learning aids.

The organizational pattern of a secondary school depends on the size of the school and its place in the educational ladder—whether it is a junior high school or a more or less diversified four-year or three-year senior high school.

³ Grace S. Wright, *State Accreditation of High Schools: Practices and Standards of State Agencies*, Bulletin No. 5. United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1955, pp. 54-55.

The small secondary school In sparsely settled sections of the United States, the secondary school consists of only a few young people. Although some consolidation of rural schools has occurred, most school districts are still very small: fewer than half of all secondary-school administrative units have more than 200 enrolled pupils.

The curriculum offerings of the small school are meager; the training of the teaching personnel may be inadequate, and there usually are few of the out-of-class activities found in the larger secondary school. Many graduates of the small secondary school, however, claim that such a school has certain advantages. The pupils in a small school have close contact with teachers and fellow pupils, and there often is good co-operation between the school, the parents, and the community. Some of the organizational and administrative difficulties in the very small secondary schools can be eliminated by the adoption of the 6-6 plan of organization, which brings larger pupil population, more adequately trained teachers, and better facilities and equipment.

The large secondary school The large secondary school can be organized to offer many educational advantages to its students: wide choice of courses, well-trained teaching personnel, modern and elaborate equipment, and opportunities for participation in varied out-of-class activities. Yet there may be disadvantages in the large school. The individual pupil may become lost in the crowd. The handling of organizational duties may become cumbersome, resulting perhaps in duplication of effort or neglect of important matters. Education in a very large secondary school may become mass production.

Many educators regard a pupil enrollment of about 2,000 as the optimum for schools in cities of one million or more and enrollment of 700 to 1,000 as most desirable in cities, townships, or districts having a population under one million. The school then can offer many of the advantages of both small and large schools. In a well-organized school ranging in enrollment from 700 to 2,000 pupils, little, if any, unwieldiness should encumber the administration. The curricular and extracurricular offerings can be varied to meet pupil needs. Individual students can become acquainted with their teachers and fellow pupils, and the

school can maintain close and friendly relations with the community.

The Junior High School The general organization of the junior high school and of the senior high school is similar: orientation programs are planned for new entrants; pupils may be grouped for instruction according to previous school marks; out-of-class student activities are encouraged (see Chapter 9); and much of the instruction is departmentalized according to subjects, although fundamental learnings may be integrated (see Chapter 5). In addition, provision is made for personal, educational, social, and occupational guidance. The difference between the two structural plans is mainly one of emphasis on ways to meet the specific needs and interests of preadolescents and young adolescents, as compared with those of older adolescents.

Factors of organization The junior high school is so organized that

1. Fundamental learnings, such as the English language arts, arithmetic, health and safety education, are continued.
2. Instruction in the various learning areas is articulated with teaching in the elementary and senior high schools (see Chapter 5).
3. New things to do and new ways to do them are explored.
4. Pupils are helped to make plans for senior high school.
5. In some junior high schools, accelerated programs are provided for mentally superior pupils so that they may complete the work of three years in two or two-and-a-half-years.
6. A flexible organization, separate from both the lower and the higher school levels, provides an easier transition for pupils from the elementary school to the secondary school and permits ninth-graders to develop leadership qualities in out-of-class activities, an experience they might be denied as freshmen in a four-year high school.

The junior high school challenges the ingenuity of administrators, teachers, and counselors. During the junior-high-school years, probably more than on any other educational level, every young person needs the services of sympathetic and understand-

ing adults. The organization of the school program may be a factor in attracting and holding those teachers who are well grounded in subject matter, who have insight into their pupils' personal, educational, and social problems, and who are flexible in their teaching approaches.

Curriculum considerations and organizational structure of the American junior high school have been studied by James B. Conant. He presented his tentative convictions on these problems to the convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals which was held in Portland, Oregon, in March, 1960. His suggestions, summarized by the editor of *Phi Delta Kappan*, are presented here.

1. Because grades seven and eight are so important, the need for properly trained junior high teachers is paramount; neither the elementary nor the senior high teacher is usually well adapted to give instruction in these grades.

2. Grade eight should be fully departmentalized. By this time the delicate balance between the child-centered curriculum and the subject-centered curriculum is shifting to the latter.

3. The seventh grade should be transitional between the self-contained class of grades one to six and the departmentalization of grade eight.

4. In grade eight, or in grades seven and eight, the following subjects should be required of *all* pupils: English, social studies, mathematics, science, art, music, physical education, industrial arts for boys, and home economics for girls. The flexibility afforded by the seven-period day makes it preferable to the six-period day.

5. Drastic revisions of the physical education program may be in order before the ideal of five periods a week can be achieved.

6. In the ninth grade, the curriculum should provide for introduction of the usual sequential elective programs as well as the continuation of the required courses in general education. Many students will keep up their interest in art, music, and industrial arts, while others will elect foreign languages and algebra instead of general mathematics. Personal typing might well be appropriate to the junior high grades.

7. In grade eight there probably should be ability grouping into three groups, preferably subject-by-subject in English, social studies, mathematics, and science.

8. The teaching of reading has become the subject of tremendous

interest, especially in the large cities; it is a function of the schools at all levels now.

9. There should be full-time guidance personnel to direct the testing program, etc.

10. The highly gifted must be given an accelerated program in some areas, although opinion has not yet crystallized as to how large a percentage of the school should be included in the group or how it should be formed.

11. Superintendents and principals must be particularly concerned with the whole matter of articulation, and the problem will increase as more attention is paid to individual needs and as earlier differentiation takes place.

12. All schools should have a fully qualified librarian who runs a well-stocked central library.

13. Students in grades seven and eight should spend a considerable portion of their time in English classes developing skill in writing varieties of sentences, paragraphs, and even short essays.

14. Dramatics, musical activities, intra-mural athletics, dances—all have their place in the transitional years of grades seven and eight.

15. In some communities those activities based on competitive athletics and public performance have gone much too far in the junior high.

16. Such factors as existing building facilities will determine whether a system is organized in a certain way—6-3-3, 6-6, 8-4, and so on. There is no overwhelming evidence to show that grade nine belongs with grade ten or with grade eight. It would seem that some boys and perhaps many girls would fare better in terms of the "social" argument if the break between junior and senior high schools were between the eighth and ninth grades; others might fare better if it came between nine and ten. However, there are good arguments in favor of an organization which provides an eighth grade of at least 125-150 pupils. This many are needed to departmentalize, group, and offer a broad program satisfactorily.⁴

Co-operation with other community agencies For the work of the junior high school to be effective, organizational planning for the close co-operation of the school staff with parents, community agencies, and senior high schools is needed. The school should be so organized that teachers and school counselors can

⁴ Stanley Elam, "Conant on the Junior High School," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XLV, No. 7, April, 1960, pp. 326-7.

evaluate the differing potentialities of their pupils and plan a program for them to pursue on the senior-high-school level. Unless parents are kept apprised by school counselors of their child's abilities and educational progress, they may insist on his pursuing a course which may be unsuitable for him.

The junior high school should arrange a working relationship with such community agencies as physical and mental health clinics, welfare organizations, business houses and industrial plants, and neighborhood recreational centers. If parents are unwilling or financially unable to care for their child's health needs, it becomes the responsibility of the school to seek the aid of a community clinic. Unhealthful home conditions may require the services of a welfare agency. The school should have access to such facilities.

The effectiveness of the school's program of vocational exploration can be enhanced by visits to neighboring occupational centers. While play centers connected with elementary schools usually can satisfy children's desire to engage in free activity with their fellows, young adolescents need and want to participate in more formalized recreational activities. Neighborhood youth centers can introduce junior-high-school pupils to the kinds of recreation they are likely to continue in later years: sports; dancing; quiet games of skill, such as checkers or chess. Although community agencies are utilized by schools on any educational level, their services can be especially valuable to the junior high school.

Articulation with senior high school Placing the graduates of a junior high school in an appropriate senior high school can be a problem. In a community having only one academic or general senior high school and one vocational high school, the problem may be limited to obtaining parental consent for a young person's admission to the recommended school. In large city school systems, the different types of senior high schools available complicate the problem. The academic or general senior high schools are zoned according to school districts and are fed by the graduates of the junior high schools included; the districting of vocational and technical high schools usually is more flexible.

Most senior high schools would like to be relatively selective in

their acceptance of pupils from junior high schools. Some of the higher schools set standards for entrance, such as minimum standards in reading comprehension and mathematical computation. Some specify that retardation may not exceed one year. In other words, to be eligible for entrance into such a high school, a graduate of the ninth year of junior high school must have reached the norm for the end of the eighth grade in appropriate standardized reading comprehension and mathematics tests. Some academic and technical schools admit on the basis of a qualifying entrance examination. The junior high school, therefore, must assist its pupils in selecting a school which will accept them and must provide any remedial learning needed to prepare pupils for admission to the school of their choice.

The Senior High School Increasing secondary-school populations demand expanded curriculum offerings. And because of the wide differences in interest and ability among adolescent learners, school offerings need to be differentiated as well as expanded. Many high schools throughout the country still are organized along more or less traditional lines; the school usually offers three curriculums: academic or college preparatory, general, and commercial or business. Large cities have experimented with different types of organization, such as the specialized high school and the comprehensive high school.

The specialized high school During the first quarter of the century, larger school systems established the specialized school, in which the curriculum for the most part was limited to one particular area of study, such as commercial, technical, industrial or trade, or vocational. In some cities, schools for scientific study, for music and arts, and for expression (dramatics) were added. In New York City are such specialized schools as The Central Commercial High School, The Bronx High School of Science, Food Trades and Vocational High School, The High School of Music and Art, Brooklyn Technical High School, The High School of Dramatic Arts, and Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades. Any junior-high-school pupil who shows special talent is counseled to apply for admission to the appropriate specialized senior high school.

The comprehensive high school There is a trend today toward what may be termed *comprehensive* high schools. In these schools with a diversity of curriculum offerings, pupils' needs can be met more adequately, and pupils can transfer easily from one curriculum to another. It would be impossible, however, for one school to offer complete curriculums in all types of specialization in addition to the traditional academic curriculum. Hence in the comprehensive school there still must be some degree of selectivity.

Recently, plans were laid by the Board of Education of New York City to establish two comprehensive or dual-purpose high schools which will offer complete vocational and academic curriculums, permitting a student to shift from one to another after the ninth year. The project was introduced to meet the problem of what to do for the student who, at the age of fourteen or fifteen, seems to be suited for neither the vocational nor the academic school. One solution seemed to be the establishment of comprehensive high schools, where young people may have more time to find themselves.

James B. Conant, a strong advocate of the comprehensive high school, made an extensive study of fifty-five high schools scattered among eighteen of the most populous states. Some of his conclusions are: (1) most bright students are not working to capacity; (2) there is a false antithesis between vocational and academic programs, since vocational-school students spend half their time on academic subjects—English, social studies, mathematics, and science; (3) socially, the comprehensive school has specific advantages over specialized schools; (4) academic studies do not cover a wide enough range; and (5) there is too little emphasis on the study of mathematics, sciences, and foreign languages.

Some educators and other persons in leadership positions tend to question the wisdom of wide diversification of offerings at the secondary level. These critics contend that in the United States the schools are attempting to be all things to all adolescents, with the result that the extremely bright are not held to high standards of academic achievement, the mentally inferior are coddled, and the average, normal young people, who constitute the largest percentage of the school population, receive the least attention.

Summer schools and night schools Some secondary schools (mainly in large urban areas) include summer schools for those pupils who want either to repeat subjects they have failed or to complete their regular four-year course in less time. Night high schools are provided for young working people who want to continue school beyond the compulsory attendance age limit and for adults who wish to pursue courses on the secondary level.

ORGANIZATION OF SPECIALIZED SERVICES

Throughout the United States there is evidence of a rapidly increasing acceptance of an educational policy of providing in the school for many of the needs of youth which are not provided for in the home or by other community agencies concerned with child welfare. Many special services are available to all pupils; others are intended for the special-problem pupils. Audio-visual aids and library services are provided for regular classroom learning. Other projects aim at caring for the general welfare of young people.

Transportation In sparsely settled areas, transportation to and from school generally is provided. For many years, special transportation facilities have been available in urban areas to young children and to the physically handicapped. There is a growing trend toward providing, in one way or another, for general transportation. This service may be offered free by city-owned and -operated or city-rented buses, or pupils may travel, at reduced fare rates, by regular transportation, according to specialized zoning regulations.

School Lunch Programs Most secondary schools have a student cafeteria. In many school systems, the pupils are provided with well-balanced, wholesome lunches at low cost. City schools, especially, provide free lunches for economically underprivileged young people. Federal funds have helped finance free lunch programs.

Work Experience Programs Following the pattern set by Antioch College, Ohio, some city high schools are organized, at least partially, on a work-study basis. The pupils are enabled

thereby to spend a period of time (usually two weeks) in school and a corresponding period working on the job. There are other schools in which the guidance personnel obtain part-time work after school for those pupils who want it.

Guidance Services The extent and kind of guidance services made available to young people vary with schools, as do the recreational facilities and opportunities. (See Chapters 9 and 16.)

Other Specialized Services The physically handicapped—the lame, the blind, the deaf, and the delicate—are cared for in special schools or classes, or are given special attention in regular classes. Visiting teachers instruct seriously handicapped and bedridden young people in their homes. Such students may earn diplomas through this home-study program.

The education of mentally slow pupils is receiving considerable attention in some of the larger school systems. Schools have been established to train them in simple vocational activities. In some secondary schools young people having an intelligence quotient between 65 and 75 are placed in special adjustment classes, where they follow a modified curriculum.

A worthwhile project is the provision of summer camps. Although many of these are intended for young children, some are available for older pupils. In spite of difficulties of operation, the nationally sponsored farm-help programs for high-school and college students conducted during World War II were valuable educational and health-building media. Many school people advocate continuing a modified program of this kind for city youths.

FINANCING SECONDARY EDUCATION

Training for democratic citizenship is furthered in a country where continued education is provided at public expense for all who wish to avail themselves of it. The movement to set up tuition-free education on the secondary level was started in Massachusetts, where the law of 1827 made provision for tax-supported education for children of high-school age. The Kala-

mazoo Decision in 1870 included high schools among "common" schools for tax purposes. The Massachusetts law and the Michigan decision exercised a profound influence on the furtherance of the democratic ideal. Now the principle of taxation for support of secondary schools is well established in this country.

Secondary schools are not really free, of course; they cost the taxpayers a great deal of money. School plants are expensive; the equipment and supplies require constant expenditures of money; the teaching personnel should be paid salaries commensurate with their years of training, experience, and ability. A secondary-school teacher should receive financial rewards that will permit him to bring up his family as respectably as other citizens in his community who have had comparable professional training.

Relation of Finance to Education A generally high educational standard for our schools depends on the willingness of our citizens to finance them. It is axiomatic that, if we are to provide proper education for our children, we must supply funds adequate to secure dedicated leaders, able teachers, excellent school plants, and appropriate supplies and equipment. The kind of school that any community has depends in large part on the amount of money that can be raised through taxation from national, state, and local sources for school purposes.

Financial resources alone do not make a good secondary school, but a good secondary school cannot exist without adequate funds. Certainly as much money should be spent for education as for other, less important undertakings. The value of education must be sold to the American people; they must be convinced that a democracy can be maintained only through adequate education. When they are fully persuaded of this fact, the problem of securing necessary funds will disappear.

Basic Principles of School Finance The underlying principles of school finance are important to all who are concerned with education. Although the Board of Education is responsible for the actual expenditure of the funds, all citizens have a stake in how the funds are raised and how they are spent. The broad principles of school finance which have gained general acceptance are given by W. M. Barr as follows:

1. Public schools are a primary governmental responsibility.
2. Adequate financial support of public schools is essential in a democratic state.
3. School funds should be utilized efficiently.
4. School fiscal policies should be stable.
5. Flexibility is essential to the development of sound school finance practices.
6. Social justice should be strengthened by school finance policies.⁵

More specific principles are these:

1. The expenditure of any funds should be preceded by careful planning.
2. Public education should be available to all intellectually qualified citizens to the age of 21.
3. The expenditure of federal funds should ensure the equalization of educational opportunities throughout the United States.
4. The states should be responsible for education, even when some school revenues are obtained from federal sources.
5. Expenditures for education should bear an appropriate relationship to the total national income and to the money spent for other community projects.

Local, State, and Federal Support for Education Money should be made available from local, state, and federal sources for our youth to complete an adequate program of education through the secondary school. There may come a time, indeed, when we shall accept the principle that all who can profit from education *beyond* the high school should have the chance to receive it at public expense.

The roles of the local community and of the state in providing funds for school purposes are relatively clear, but the role of the federal government is yet to be determined. The local community should carry a school tax burden based on fair and equitable assessments. This should be supplemented by state-aid funds so allocated as to equalize funds available to the various districts within the state. There is a strong feeling among edu-

⁵ W. M. Barr, *American Public School Finance*, American Book Company, New York, 1960, p. 50.

cators that federal funds should be allocated to states on a pre-determined basis to help the respective states become more nearly equal in their ability to provide adequate public education.

Expenditures and receipts for education The total expenditure for current expense (general control, instruction, operation of plant, maintenance of plant, auxiliary services, and fixed charges) and capital outlay by public elementary and secondary full-time day schools, summer schools, and adult classes in 1959 was approximately 14 billion dollars. Table 5 shows the sums of

Table 5. Source and Amount of School Revenue, 1958-1959

Source	Per Cent*
Federal	3.5
State	39.7
Local	56.8

* Estimates of School Statistics, 1958-59, *Research Report, 1958-R6*, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., p. 15.

money received from federal, state, and local sources during the school year 1958-59.

Federal funds for secondary education For many years federal grants for education were limited to those provided for college education. Since 1917, federal funds have been made available for vocational education and certain other types of educational service on the secondary level. Federal subsidy for vocational education below the college level, including the training of teachers in the vocational area, has been made possible by the enactment of the following legislation:

1. 1917. The Smith-Hughes Act provided federal aid for vocational education in agriculture, home economics, trades and industry, and teacher training in these areas.
2. 1929. The George-Reed Act (a temporary measure) provided federal funds to advance home economics and agricultural education.
3. 1934. The George-Ellzey Act superseded the George-

Reed Act. It extended federal subsidy for supervision as well as teaching in all areas of vocational education—agriculture, industry, trade, and home economics.

4. 1936. The George-Deen Act advanced federal aid to vocational education by including the distributive occupations.

5. 1946. The George-Bardeen Act, known as the "Vocational Act of 1946," amended the George-Deen Act. The George-Bardeen Act made federal funds available for the first time for counseling youth and training vocational counselors. It also provided funds for vocational counselors' research in guidance and placement.

6. 1958. The National Defense Education Act authorized the expenditure of more than one billion dollars in federal aid over a five-year period. It touches every level of education, public and private, from the elementary school through college.

Pressure is mounting for greater expenditure of federal funds for education. Federal funds already have been made available to help secondary schools extend special services in guidance, mathematics, science and foreign languages, and in coping with the problem of juvenile delinquency. It is likely that federal funds for various purposes will be increased in the future.

EQUALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

The equalization of educational opportunities must take into consideration the following three factors: (1) the mental capacity and interest of learners, (2) the quality of teaching, and (3) the availability of buildings and equipment. Ability to meet educational needs varies greatly among the states. Some states have more pupils of high-school age per 1,000 adult population than others. Some states have greater per capita wealth than others. All students, naturally, are entitled to a good education, regardless of where they live. Some basic principles of equalization of educational opportunities are suggested.

1. Equality of participation in educational opportunities should be assured to all children.
2. Services for all adolescents should be made available without regard to the place of residence of the individual.
3. Participation in general and specialized education should

be made available to the extent to which the individual can benefit from it.

4. Adequate provision should be made for older adolescents and adults through the various educational agencies of the community.
5. Educational provisions should be greatly expanded for exceptional individuals.
6. The quality of education adequate to meet the needs of a democratic nation should be made available to all persons at all levels.
7. Transportation service for pupils in rural or other areas should be provided so as to assure an education to all who can benefit from it.
8. Medical, dental, and psychiatric care should be provided.
9. School districts should continue to be reorganized to enlarge the local administrative unit as well as the tax base.
10. More federal aid should be provided.

Variation among States States have attempted to distribute state funds according to certain formulas in order to provide some degree of equalization within states. Some states, however, need more federal aid for their educational program than others. The federal government has been struggling with this problem and may soon reach a solution. In the meantime, local communities must rely on real estate as a source of school funds. This is not very satisfactory, since we know that a fixed rate of tax on the value of property yields vastly different results in, say, New York State and Alabama. In localities where the taxable values are less, the tax rate must be extremely high to provide even poor schools. For example, the per-pupil cost of education in 1958-59 ranged from a low of \$164 in Alabama to a high of \$535 in New York, with a national average of \$340. Table 6 reveals the great variation among states in per-pupil expenditure.

There also is a wide range in the tax receipts that are raised by the various states. These approximate percentages are given in Table 7.

The inequality of educational opportunity is known to all who study the question. Citizens move from one part of a state

Table 6. Variation among States in Per-Pupil Expenditures

Expenditures per pupil	Number of states 1957-58
\$150-199	2
200-249	8
250-299	6
300-349	12
350-399	13
400-449	6
450-499	1
500-550	2

(Research Report, 1958-R6, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., p. 17.)

Table 7. Approximate Per Cent of Receipts from Taxation and Appropriation for 1959-1960

State	Per Cent	State	Per Cent
Delaware	78.1	Maine	38.3
Louisiana	72.8	Minnesota	38.0
Georgia	71.9	New York	37.8
South Carolina	71.9	Maryland	36.9
Hawaii	70.8	Virginia	33.6
North Carolina	70.7	Idaho	31.9
New Mexico	69.4	Colorado	31.2
Alabama	68.0	Missouri	31.0
Washington	61.1	Oregon	29.9
Florida	58.9	Indiana	29.5
West Virginia	57.4	Ohio	28.7
Tennessee	53.8	Connecticut	27.5
Nevada	53.2	North Dakota	26.5
Mississippi	53.0	New Jersey	24.1
Pennsylvania	50.3	Illinois	23.8
Alaska	50.0	Vermont	23.5
Arkansas	49.2	Kansas	23.4
Texas	47.9	Wisconsin	22.5
Utah	47.0	Montana	22.2
Oklahoma	46.2	Rhode Island	19.0
Arizona	44.2	Massachusetts	17.7
Kentucky	43.8	Iowa	12.4
California	42.7	South Dakota	8.4
Michigan	42.3	New Hampshire	5.4
Wyoming	41.3	Nebraska	5.1
Average for the United States 40.1%			

(Based on Estimates of School Statistics, 1959-60, *Research Report*, 1959-R23, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., p. 28.)

from one section of the country, or from one part of a city to another in order to find better educational opportunities for their children. Much has been discovered about the value to all citizens of raising the educational level of all learners. We do not accept our full responsibility as American citizens unless we sup-

port the principle that all learners should be given equal opportunity for a good education.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is meant by the "traditional" high school?
2. State the main recommendations of the Committee of Ten and the Committee on College Entrance Requirements.
3. With the help of your classmates, make a list of all the weaknesses you can find in the secondary schools with which you are acquainted. Make a list of the strong points of these schools.
4. In what ways do the schools with which you are acquainted measure up to present-day standards of secondary education?
5. Compare the advantages and disadvantages of the 8-4 plan of school organization with those of the 6-3-3 plan, the 6-2-4 plan, and the 6-6 plan.
6. Discuss values inherent in the 6-4-4 plan of organization.
7. What is the compulsory school-attendance age in your state? Discuss the advisability of having a compulsory school-attendance age of eighteen years.
8. Present arguments for and against annual promotions on the elementary-school level and on the secondary level.
9. As a class project, formulate what might be an ideal secondary-school organization. Consider all phases of organization.
10. To what extent does a democratic form of government rest upon secondary education financed by public funds?
11. Should secondary education be financed in part by tuition? Why or why not?
12. What information would you need to draw up a salary schedule for the secondary-school teachers in your community?
13. What are the sources of school revenue in your state? What additional sources can be drawn on?

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The Secondary-School Student

"The adolescent is an odd, awkward, graceful, respectful, impudent, selfish, altruistic, idealistic, narrow-minded, sympathetic, cruel individual."¹ In these words William H. Burton once described the typical secondary-school student, and the genus has not changed, except in a superficial way, in the quarter of a century since Burton wrote his description.

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The physical characteristics of adolescents are especially important to school people because of (1) the relationship between a young person's rate of physical development and the kind and extent of activity in which he should engage, and (2) the effect of the relative speed of his growth on his attitudes and emotions.

Growth in Height and Weight In one year an adolescent may grow as much as six inches in height and gain twenty to twenty-five pounds in weight. Girls tend to increase in height and weight two years earlier than boys. Rate of growth differs among young people, however. For some, the change is relatively gradual; for others, it seems almost as though they go to bed one night as children and awaken the next morning as adults. A little boy discovers that other boys in his age group have outgrown him; he is now the "runt" in his group, no match for his schoolmates in physical prowess, and perhaps the object of teasing. Then, to the surprise of himself and the other boys, he suddenly is the tallest and strongest member of the group. His relations with the others change; he may be impelled to

¹ William H. Burton, *Introduction to Education*, Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1934, p. 501.

bully them in return for the embarrassment they caused him. A slender and popular little Miss suddenly becomes big and pudgy. Her clothes are too small; she is not as quick and nimble as she has been, and her more slowly developing childhood friends exclude her from their group. Realizing that she is unwanted by her age group, she seeks the company of people older than she is, especially boys, but finds that she is too immature socially to be accepted by them.

To recognize individual differences in the rate of skeletal growth, one need only look at a ninth-year class. A teacher of thirteen- and fourteen-year-olds may find it difficult to handle pupils who range in size from little boys to awkward gangling young giants, or from spritely little girls to stout adolescents. To complicate the situation further, the bigger the pupils are, the less mature they may be in their behavior.

The rate of other body changes can have disturbing effects on a young person's behavior and attitudes. Feet and hands may develop so rapidly that they seem to be out of proportion to the rest of the body. The boy outgrows his shoes rapidly; he is embarrassed by his big feet. The girl becomes conscious of her big, awkward hands, which seem constantly to drop things. The young adolescent's face may seem out of proportion, since the upper part usually develops more rapidly than the lower part.

The greatest muscular development in boys occurs between the ages of fifteen and sixteen; in girls the greatest increase appears during the years from twelve to fifteen. The average young person is not prepared to adjust to rapid muscular growth. The boy, especially, lacks co-ordination. He is awkward in his movements; he trips and stumbles; he suffers the pangs of bearlike awkwardness when he enters a classroom and tries to get his body adjusted to a seat.

Skin Condition During adolescence a change takes place in the texture of the skin and in the functioning of the sweat glands. The pores of the skin enlarge, causing the young person gradually to lose the fresh, smooth complexion of childhood. Axillary hair begins to appear. The sebaceous or oil-producing sweat glands connected with the hair follicles increase in size and activity during puberty. If these glands fail to function properly, acne may develop.

Improper diet and carelessness in personal hygiene are likely to aggravate acne and may cause emotional disturbances. The rapidly developing body of a teen-ager demands nourishment. Always hungry, he craves sweets and heavy, indigestible food. He tends to indulge in orgies of overeating, with resulting indigestion and skin blemishes. When he participates in strenuous activity, his sweat glands secrete matter which, mixed with particles of dirt, clogs the pores of his skin and further intensifies skin trouble. At the same time, the adolescent resents the well-meant admonitions of adults about habits of cleanliness and discretion in eating.

Glandular Changes Adolescence is marked by changes in glandular functioning. Most apparent is the development of the sex glands, but other glands also are affected. The enlargement of the thyroid gland in girls may result in irregularities of the basal metabolic rate, a condition which may cause much apparent instability, nervousness, apathy, or excitability. For the girl, maturity begins with her first menstrual period. The overt signs of the beginning of maturity in the boy usually are voice changes and the appearance of pubic hair.

Unless a child has been prepared for the changes that accompany puberty, he may suffer serious emotional disturbances. The first seminal emission for the boy or the first menstrual discharge for the girl can cause bewilderment, fear, or even a feeling of guilt. The last is especially likely if the young person has heard only partially understood stories or innuendoes from more mature but misinformed associates.

The early adolescent years are difficult at best. Fortunately for many individuals, physical changes come gradually. For the young person who has been prepared by wise adults, the pre-pubertal and postpubertal days pass with little emotional disturbance. Indeed, interest in the new activities and responsibilities that are a part of growing up is the usual attitude of a normal and sympathetically guided adolescent.

TYPICAL DRIVES AND INTERESTS

An individual's attitudes and behavior are influenced to a great extent by (1) his inherent drives or urges, (2) the motives

for his behavior that grow out of these drives, and (3) the interests which he develops as a result of the impact upon his fundamental drives of environmental conditions, traditions, and customs. Many of a person's drives and urges begin to show themselves at birth or shortly thereafter and continue in changed or modified form throughout the rest of his life.

The Adolescent and His Needs By the time an individual reaches adulthood he has formed habits of meeting his needs for food, clothing, and shelter; he also has developed more or less satisfactory social relationships. During adolescence the meeting of these needs is most important. Too many school people suppose that the chief concern of the teen-age student is the acquisition of knowledge or skill that will benefit him in his adult life. The fact is that the young person's physical wants and social urges are so strong that his interest in formal school learning is likely to take second place.

Food The adolescent's constant hunger needs to be satisfied —no tearoom diet for him. Between regular meals he wants candy, double-portion sundaes, or chocolate sodas. Some schools wisely provide wholesome mid-morning and mid-afternoon snacks. At times, however, the adolescent appears to lose interest in eating. This loss of appetite may be normal or it may indicate a health condition that requires medical attention.

Sometimes a girl who feels she is putting on excessive weight will deny herself the food she needs. She will skip breakfast and merely nibble at her lunch. School people share with parents the responsibility of convincing the modern, middle-teen-age girl that a well-rounded figure is one of her chief attractions. At the same time a teacher should be alert to the fact that abnormal stoutness during adolescence may be a symptom of endocrine imbalance which should receive medical attention.

Appearance In dress and grooming the secondary-school pupil wants the very latest in adolescent-approved styles. The two sexes have many tastes in common. They both like bright colors and unusual color combinations. A careless or even rela-

tively unclean appearance seems to appeal to many adolescents. Most adolescents pass through a period during which they oppose parental suggestions concerning appropriate dress, though they may imitate the dress and grooming of a favorite teacher. A teacher's casual comment on the attractiveness, becomingness, or novelty of an article of clothing is often quite effective.

During this period, clothes seem to be worn for appearance rather than for practical reasons. Hats or overshoes may be taboo if to wear them would be interpreted by the peer group as a sign of parental coddling. Slacks, sport shirts, brightly colored mittens, bobby socks, no socks, untied shoelaces, ties of startling shades or no ties, much jingling costume jewelry, pins, buttons, letters having special significance—all these and many more adolescent fashions have their day and then disappear. The wise parent and the perceptive teacher observe and accept, hoping that if the current mode is too bizarre, it will pass quickly—as it usually does.

The young adolescent likes to experiment, a tendency apparent in changes of haircut and hairdo. In differing order, a boy may affect a pompadour, a crew cut, hair in eyes, and even sideburns. His hair may be tousled, or slicked down with generous applications of hair oils. The girl's hair may be variously long or short, arranged in a pony tail or in bangs that almost fall over the eyes. She is likely to try out all kinds of make-up, depending on her mood or the type of personality she wishes to express. It may bring some comfort to a teacher to regard these dress and grooming vagaries of developing adolescents as nothing more than overt expressions of their struggle to assert a feeling of independence and individuality.

The adolescent boy, or more often the girl, who perhaps most deserves sympathetic understanding is the one who wants to follow the example of his teen-age associates in current fashions in dress, but cannot. The parents may insist on the young person's following their standards of proper dress and grooming. In some instances, they cannot afford to supply him with the money needed to keep in style. Too frequently, inability to meet dress competition results in dropping out of high school.

Adolescents like change. They are bored by the sameness of furnishings and arrangements which is so satisfying to stodgy

parents. Fortunate is the young person who has his or her own room and patient parents who can afford to allow periodic re-decorating and reorganization of that room. Sometimes a young person's dissatisfaction with his home causes him to withdraw from association with his classmates. Since this situation is so much a matter of the young person's pride, even a most understanding and sympathetic teacher may not be able to discover the source of his withdrawal and help solve it.

Dependence versus Independence The secondary-school pupil is no longer a dependent child, but he has not yet reached the stage of reasonable adult independence. He is becoming aware of himself as a person with new desires and interests. Through reading, class discussions, audio-visual aids, and field trips he is introduced to an ever-enlarging environment. He is stimulated to find a place for himself in this bigger world. To do so, however, he must be a free agent. His teachers can present to him the broad horizons that lie before him, but they cannot go along with him as he sets out, mostly in dreams at first, to make himself a part of the adult world.

Unfortunately, the young person is not yet mature enough to recognize his own limitations. He wants freedom to choose friends, courses at school, leisure-time activities, time of coming home from social or recreational events, clothes, food, affiliation with religious or social organizations, and, perhaps most important of all, his career. He needs to learn through personal experience, but he also needs guidance in the selection of those experiences that will be most worthwhile.

Adolescents cannot be driven. They must be led tactfully and patiently. If adults ignore them or put them completely on their own, they may develop strong feelings of resentment, frustration, or self-pity. Young people often respond to outsiders more readily than they do to their parents. Teachers who have a sympathetic understanding of adolescent urges and interests and who are not too far removed from their own teen-age experiences enjoy a strategic position in relation to their students. Not every teacher can be all things to all students, but any teacher can do much in the way of guiding some of his pupils.

Other Urges and Interests Adolescents are extremely interested in themselves. They like to express their hopes and dreams in oral or written form. Usually they develop a highly idealistic philosophy of life. They like to think of themselves as reformers. They are inclined to fight enthusiastically, though often not wisely, for a cause that appeals to them at the moment. They are easily persuaded to espouse radical ideas and to treat with scorn anything that may be traditional or hallowed by custom. They sometimes complain about the lack of tolerance exhibited by adults—especially parents and older teachers. Yet, peculiarly enough, they themselves are more likely than not to be intolerant in their own views, and extremely conservative in many of their attitudes toward behavior which they consider to be right and proper.

Adolescents are curious about people and things. This curiosity can be used to good advantage by teachers provided that young people are motivated to learn rather than told that they should learn.

Sometimes in early adolescence, but more generally during the middle or later teens, boys and girls begin to exhibit considerable interest in their vocational careers. Usually their first interest is in the prestige or service value of a vocation. As they near adulthood their concern may shift to the financial advantage of one occupational field over another. In this area, as in others, young people tend to resent adult direction.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

Except in rare cases, the relationship that exists between chronological age and mental age, commonly referred to as the intelligence quotient, remains relatively constant, all other factors of physical growth and health being equal. It can be expected that the child who is a slow learner will become a slow-learning adolescent and that the bright child will retain his mental superiority as he grows older. What may appear to be below-normal mental ability during childhood, however, may be the result of slow development. The apparently slow child may catch up with himself by the time he reaches adolescent years.

On the other hand, many a young child who enjoys superior environmental advantages may seem in the elementary school to give evidence of a degree of alertness that fails him when he attempts to master more difficult subject matter.

Mental Characteristics During the adolescent years mental abilities become much more evident than they were during the less challenging childhood years. There is, however, some misconception concerning changes in mental capacities from childhood to adolescence. As yet we have no valid evidence that the onset of pubescence is accompanied by a sudden spurt in mental development. Adolescents show a wide range in ability to concentrate on a problem, to memorize, or to engage in creative thinking.

The attention span of the adolescent increases. He develops the mental power to return to a situation from which he may have been distracted. Basically, successful concentration is linked with individual interests and potential.

An individual's ability to memorize tends to increase during his adolescent years. The teen-ager is motivated to learn and remember a variety of facts and principles. He is well equipped to memorize by rote such material as a part in a play. Intensity, vividness, or duration of a stimulus, and the kind of feeling tones associated with the stimulus situation, however, are forces that affect the strength of his memory. He needs overlearning as an aid to understanding.

Although adolescents display creative imagination, they differ widely in their use of it. These differences may be rooted in their inherited potentiality or may result from experiences within their environment. Most young people like to write poetry or prose, or to engage in constructive projects. Their creative efforts usually tend toward the serious and idealistic. Light humor is relatively rare. Life is serious business. Emotions are strong. Their poetry and sometimes their prose writings are highly introspective and reflect their concern with the great problems of life.

The normal adolescent is interested in the world about him, the behavior and attitudes of his associates, and his own develop-

ing powers. Within the limits of his potentialities, he seeks to satisfy his curiosity, to reason, and to create. The extent to which his developing abilities are expressed depends on the kind and amount of motivation he receives. Providing appropriate stimulation for young people having differing degrees of mental alertness challenges the ingenuity of all secondary-school people.

The School and Adolescent Mentality At one time, curricular offerings and teaching procedures were geared to meet the educational needs of the intellectually superior. The less able fell by the wayside. Moreover, those who could master abstract learning materials received little help toward good emotional and social development. In the more recent past, a changing philosophy of secondary education resulted in (1) modified curriculums and simple teaching approaches for slower learners, and (2) considerable emphasis on social interrelationships. Some educators became so involved in these newer secondary-school objectives that many intellectually superior young people were denied sufficient motivation. Consequently, although attempts still are being made to provide adequate opportunities for all youth to develop physically, mentally, and socially, we are becoming increasingly concerned with the development, through appropriate learning motivation, of special talent and superior intellectual power.

EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES

Adolescence is the period during which a boy or a girl may run the entire gamut of emotional experiences, from uncontrolled ecstasy to deep depression. It can also be a period of relatively peaceful "growing up." Success and failure come to the adolescent as they do to people of all ages, but probably at no other time of life does success or failure have so great an effect on the individual experiencing it. Moreover, the adolescent has not yet learned to compartmentalize his life: an emotional experience in one area is likely to affect all his other relationships. Parental denial of a request or a quarrel with a schoolmate, for

example, may cause a young person's school work to suffer. His highly emotionalized state interferes with his normal attitudes and activities.

Studies seem to indicate that, contrary to general belief, boys are as likely as girls to display emotions, especially anger. Less intelligent young people appear to show evidence of fears to a greater extent than do the mentally superior, though the latter may be more easily aroused to anger.

Anger Many of the causes of adolescent anger may seem trivial to the adult, but to the young person they are very real and extremely important. School situations may be filled with dynamite. Home-study assignments may be too long. A teacher may express disapproval of a young person's behavior. If this disapproval is shown to the boy or girl in the presence of his schoolmates, the intensity of his anger is increased.

The behavior of associates in school may incite an adolescent to display rage or to harbor inner resentment. Since teen-agers throw themselves wholeheartedly into their friendships with other boys and girls, they are easily hurt or annoyed by the behavior of these friends. Because of their feelings of insecurity, they are sensitive to the comments made to or about them by their peers. This is motivated, in part at least, by the fear that they may not be socially acceptable. Any form of real or imagined thwarting arouses anger. A chair may get in the way and cause an adolescent to stub his toe. Even the weather may be at fault!

Many of these fits of anger are short-lived, even when they are intense. Usually, the more vocal the adolescent is about his grievance, the sooner he will recover his good nature. He may slam the door; he may throw something (rarely with the intent to hit anyone); he may become sulky; but if he is an active young person with many interests, he soon turns his attention to something else.

The teen-ager who does not participate in school activities or who has not made satisfying adjustment to his home, school, and social life is likely to become easily annoyed or angered. He is subject to spells of jealousy or envy. It may be difficult for him to realize that he himself is responsible for many of the un-

pleasant experiences which he encounters. This type of adolescent does not usually explode when he is thwarted in any desire. More often than not he will keep his resentment to himself. His teacher, not knowing the reason for his attitude, may consider him rude and indifferent, when actually he is suffering great mental strain. He needs a sympathetic, tactful, and understanding adult, who is willing to help him shift attention from himself and his troubles to activities in which he can achieve success and thus gain self-confidence and a feeling of security.

Fear and Worry There is a type of outwardly aggressive young person who constantly tries to impress himself and others. He appears to be assured and self-satisfied, but his apparent aggressiveness may be a technique used to conceal his fears and feelings of insecurity. Some teen-agers have many fears, most of which grow out of their social relationships. They are afraid that they may do or say something that is incorrect. Introducing one friend to another, finding an interesting topic of conversation, walking through a room in which there are other boys and girls—all these may become frightening experiences.

Most of the worries of young adolescents center in their school work. As they approach middle adolescence, they worry about other matters: relationships between the sexes, religion, parental attitudes toward adolescent interests, social poise, clothes, money, health, and vocational choice. During the later years of adolescence, young people experience fear of death, of insanity, of vocational failure, or of unwise mate selection. They give much thought to the why and how of human relations, and they construct or attempt to construct a philosophy of life that will be in keeping with their ideals and interests.

The results of a recent study made by the authors concerning adolescent worries in various life areas are presented in Table 8.

Experienced parents and teachers know that most adolescents, however much they may worry, are resilient. Even small achievements help them overcome their fear about any situation in which they find themselves. The observant teacher notes day-by-day attitudes and moods. Often he is able to offer tactful help to any of his pupils who give evidence of fears or worries associated with their home, school, or social experiences. More-

Table 8. Adolescent Worries in Various Life Areas

LIFE AREA	MALE WORRIES	FEMALE WORRIES
<i>School life</i>	Homework Getting along with teachers Tests Marks Failure Reciting in class Grade for parents' sake College entrance Being accepted	Homework Getting along with teachers Tests Marks Failure Reciting in class Parents' attitude toward grade Being accepted College entrance
<i>Home life</i>	Arguments with sister or brother Arguments with parents Arguments between parents Strict parents Conflict with parents Arguments about dating Treated unjustly	Younger brothers get what they want Parental domination Parents object to going steady Conflicts with parents Fear of mother Conflicts on values Arguments in home
<i>Boy-girl relationships</i>	How to get a date Girls I like don't like me Girls cost too much How to be invited to parties Mother objects to my going steady How to have a girl go steady Inability to dance Does girl love me? Girls of another religion How to forget girl who jilted me	How to meet new friends Boys I like don't like me How to be popular Boys are too demanding I would like to go steady Loss of boy friend Behavior of boy friend Sex standards Girls who try to steal boy friend How to get over love for boy How to refuse a date tactfully
<i>Friends</i>	Are they true friends? Friends may not like me To be worthy of good friends How to make friends To be popular	Are friends true friends? Not to let friends down To be popular How to be a leader in a group Feelings of inferiority
<i>Vocational choice</i>	State of indecision How to get a job	State of indecision How to get into show business
<i>Religion</i>	Should I marry out of my religion? Indecision Not attending religious services	Should I marry out of my religion? Doubt about religious values Fear parents will discover that I wish to change my religion
<i>Health</i>	How to grow more How to lose weight Pimples Disease	Thinness and smallness Fear of losing good health Disease Illness tendencies

(L. D. Crow and A. Crow, *Adolescent Development and Adjustment*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1956, p. 151.)

over, a parent's or a teacher's own confident, well-controlled conduct in disturbing situations can be an excellent example to young people.

The Pleasant Emotions Though he has fears and worries, the normal teen-ager is a happy, out-going person. His enthusiasm often runs high. He finds pleasure in a great many activities. His sense of humor may appear to adults to be almost infantile—"sophomoric," we call it, from the name of one of the first years in which he begins to display it. This is the period in which the student's father becomes "my old man" and teachers are assigned highly descriptive nicknames.

Some adolescent expressions of humor seem cruel. Teasing is an activity in which some boys and girls engage quite extensively in their relations with associates of their own age or a little younger. Actually, this sort of thing rarely is malicious but is rather an expression of social consciousness accompanied by an urge to assert oneself.

Most adolescents are quite tender, though the group mores keep them from displaying their feelings in anything resembling sentimentalism. They therefore lavish their affection on pet dogs, cats, or turtles; on very young children or babies; on very old people (often with a tinge of condescension); in irregular, unpredictable waves, on themselves (self-pity); on whole classes of people (the true radical remains partly an adolescent); or on the whole world. These are the most sentimental years, the years of greatest resisting and yielding to the tender emotions. At the same time, the adolescent is self-centered, as befits one just achieving his independence. He may lose patience with a particular old person (a grandparent, for example) who attempts to interfere with his interests or activities, or he may resent a baby sister or brother, if he has to spend much time or energy caring for the child.

The adolescent may be severe in his criticism of family, teachers, or close associates, but let no outsider make the mistake of joining in his disapproval. The young person probably will turn on the would-be sympathizer in righteous indignation. How dare anyone else criticize *his* family, *his* teachers, or *his* close friends! Inherently, the adolescent is intensely loyal to his groups and

will defend them in spite of the fact that he considers it his privilege to resent or to disapprove of their behavior.

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS

One of the school's prime responsibilities is to provide opportunities for wholesome, enjoyable participation in social activities under wise teacher guidance.

Group Relationships Adolescents are "joiners." They are interested in organizing groups of boys and girls with similar interests. These groups may be devoted to a specific type of activity, such as swimming, dramatics, hiking, or dancing. The avowed purpose of the organization may be study or service, resulting in the formation of a nature-study club, a 4H club, a reading circle, a special-project group, an honor society, a school or community-service organization, and so on.

An adolescent group may have very rigid membership requirements stated in a formal constitution. The group may be characterized by an attitude of snobbishness, of superiority to other young people who do not qualify for membership. The desire to be admitted to a selective organization is very strong among teen-agers. Failing to be admitted to the group may result either in a feeling of personal inferiority or in the organizing by the "outs" of another group to which the "ins" are not admitted. The former "outs" then excel the original group in exclusiveness. This situation is found in some senior high schools where fraternities and sororities exist without official sanction.

Same-Sex Relationships An adolescent boy or girl is likely to form a few lasting friendships with schoolmates of the same sex. Secondary-school teachers who keep in touch with their former students often find that a strong bond develops between two boys or two girls that may continue well into adulthood. Many such friendships are formed in the junior high school. In some instances, three or four young people of the same sex form a closely knit group or clique that serves to satisfy a young person's desire to belong. Adolescent friendships usually are based on closeness of chronological and mental ages, similarity of in-

terests, and, to some extent, socio-economic status. Young people set high ideals for their friends, and are disappointed when they don't live up to them.

The same-sex chum becomes the adolescent's chief confidant. All those hopes and fears, ideas and ideals, and joys and sorrows with which the young person will not trust an adult are poured into the willing ears of one's pal, with the assurance that the confidences will be held sacred. To betray a confidence is for the adolescent an unforgivable sin.

Opposite-Sex Relationships Teen-age boys and girls are very definite about the qualities they expect in their friends of the opposite sex. Similarity of interest is an important factor. They place great emphasis on what they consider good grooming; they dislike extremes of appearance which may cause them embarrassment in group situations. They also stress good manners.

The authors conducted a study involving some 5,000 teenagers (about equally divided between boys and girls) to discover what they *say* are the personality traits they admire or dislike in the opposite sex. There was considerable agreement in response. For example, young girls seem to be little interested in kissing, and young boys dislike girls who act older than their age. Older girls like boys who are willing to meet their parents and who participate in sports and social activities; they dislike hot-tempered boys or those who ignore girls. Some adolescent boys regard girls as nuisances. It must be remembered, however, that, although the reports were anonymous, they were written in junior- and senior-high-school classrooms, and the reporters may have tried to give the answers they thought were expected rather than express their actual thinking. The findings of the study are summarized in Tables 9, 10, and 11.

Several responses of adolescents at different ages and of both sexes are presented below.

Traits or qualities admired in boys by 14-year-old girls

(A) To be quite frank the first thing I look for is looks. Then I make sure that the boy is not a lemon. I like a boy who can protect me. I also like a boy who is possessive. The boy should be mature and well mannered. I hate cry babies. I like boys who know when to

Table 9. Personality Traits Admired by Members of the Opposite Sex

<i>Personality traits of girls admired by boys</i>	<i>Personality traits of boys admired by girls</i>
Good personality	Good personality
Good-looking—beautiful face, dress, and figure	Good-looking—tall, not necessarily handsome
Looks nice in a bathing suit	Good character
Neatness and cleanliness	Neatness
Helpful to others	Clean and appropriate dress
Consideration for others	Intelligent
Appropriate dress	Good conversationalist
Dependable	Consideration for a girl's wishes
Good talker	Respect for girls—not fresh
Good listener	Willingness to take a girl on dates
Friendliness	Boy to be older than girl
Ability to dance	Good manners
Good manners	Good natured
Acts her age	Smart in school
Courtesy	Clean-shaved and hair cut
Politeness	Clean-minded
Not a show-off	Kind and generous
Interest in hobbies of boys	Acts his age
Modest but not shy	Has a sense of humor
Acts grown-up, not like a baby	Not too shy
Clean-minded	Honest and fair
Able to take a joke	Respect for rights of girl
	Punctuality
	Doesn't try to be a big shot
	Able to get along with others
	Has self-control
	The way he kisses
	Good listener

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Table 10. Personality Traits Disliked by Members of the Opposite Sex

<i>Traits of girls disliked by boys</i>	<i>Traits of boys disliked by girls</i>
Sloppiness of appearance	Sloppiness of appearance
Overweight or underweight	Boastfulness
Tendency to flirt or "two-time"	Act like big shots
Talk too much	Display poor manners
Extremes of dress	Stinginess
Little regard for money	Being conceited
Too much interest in self	Poorly groomed
Lack of punctuality	Laziness
Snobbishness	Foolish behavior at parties
Talk about other dates	Exhibit fresh behavior
Too much make-up	Shyness
Sulking and pouting	Smoking excessively
Being conceited	Using bad language
Bites nails	Discourtesy to elders
Smokes and drinks	Talks too much
Giggling or talebearer	Wants to be center of attention
Inability to dance	Moodiness
Immature behavior	Sponging off other boys
Mingling with a fast crowd	Asking for date at last minute

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Table 11. Attempts Made by Boys and Girls to Increase Their Popularity with Members of the Opposite Sex

<i>Attempts made by boys to impress girls</i>	<i>Attempts made by girls to impress boys</i>
Develop good taste in dress	Become careful about appearance
Participate in school activities	Try to be friendly
Avoid annoying habits in school	Develop sincerity
Be considerate of the other person	Be popular with girls also
Develop similar interests	Try not to be catty
Become lively	Not go to expensive places on a date
Be as friendly as possible	Be a good conversationalist
Eliminate all annoying habits	Go in for school activities
Always be dependable	Avoid ridicule of others
Be polite to everyone	Have respect for elders

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kid around and when to be serious. I like a boy who does not whistle at another girl when I'm around. I like a boy to be well-groomed.

(B) I like a boy who has good manners and isn't a show off; a boy who acts his age and not like a baby; a boy who knows how to get along with people; a boy who would not leave me flat when he sees another girl; a boy who isn't a sloppy dresser, eater, etc.

(C) Before I like a boy I look for many things. Above all, he must have a pleasing personality. That is, he should be clean and neat, courteous, kind and considerate. He should show respect for me and he should be truthful. He should be a nice dresser. I don't actually care if he's good looking or not, but of course it helps, and he should not be too forward. He should be sensible and not silly.

(D) The kind of boy I admire is a boy who is clean, neat and respected. I would like the boy to be a little taller than I am and a little smarter. The boy must also have a good sense of humor and must stick up for me. He should have good manners, not be too shy, and have a good disposition. I also admire a boy who can tell the truth, is not dull, and knows how to dance.

Traits or qualities admired in girls by 14-year-old boys

(A) I like a girl who acts like a girl and not like a tom boy. A girl who is pretty and talks nice, and a girl who doesn't hang around with a bunch of boys or tough girls.

(B) I admire a girl's appearance, or whether she is neat or whether she is untidy. I would like her to be of average intelligence. I don't like girls who put on too much make-up or who giggle or pass notes around the classroom. I would not like her to look like something from a nightmare.

Traits admired in boys by 17-year-old girls

(A) I like a boy with intelligence, someone who knows how to talk about other things than movies and baseball, etc. I also like good looks even though they are only skin deep. The reason why I like good looks is that first impressions are very important and you notice a person's looks before anything else. I like a boy who is thoughtful and considerate.

(B) At present I like all the traits my boy friend has. He's considerate, polite, ambitious, intelligent, punctual, kind, thoughtful, complimentary, just affectionate enough, and he has a wonderful personality which allows him to mix with all groups of any ages. To top it off, he's dark and handsome.

(C) First he must be kind and considerate of me. When I go out with a boy I want him to keep up his end of the conversation. He does not have to take me to a big night club to show me a good time. We can have a good time at the movies if he is a pleasant fellow. He should be easy to get along with and be willing to earn the money he spends on a girl. He must be good looking, be a good dancer, well-bred, smarter than myself, have a sense of humor and be able to take teasing.

(D) The boy of my dreams must have a good personality, be lots of fun to be with but not loud or embarrassing in any way. Most boys feel that being loud and having a good personality are synonymous. They are wrong, since people are most usually attracted to someone who is quiet and a good listener. I like a boy who is firm and stands up for what he thinks is right. I like a boy who can easily mingle with any crowd, young or old, without feeling frustrated. Most of all I like a boy who is considerate of his date and the people he is with. I must look up to the boy I like. Therefore, he must have a sense of responsibility and be able to fulfill his obligations.

Traits admired in girls by 17-year-old boys

(A) I like a friendly smile. I like a good dresser at the right time. I like a girl with plenty of common sense at parties and dates. I like a girl to be a good dancer, a lot of fun, and to have a good sense of humor at the right time. I like a girl who does not stand on ceremony and can make the most of everything. I like a girl to have a nice form.

(B) I like girls to be neat, on time for appointments, to have a man's mechanical mind, to be able to "rough it," to be free and easy, to be able to carry on an intelligent conversation, to be adaptable to

all social positions into which we may go, to be musically inclined, and to be a good dancer.

Traits disliked in boys by 17-year-old girls

I hate a boy who is a flirt and makes passes at other girls when out on a date. I dislike insincerity. Even though I am not punctual I dislike a boy who is late for a date. I dislike a boy who uses a line to his advantage, who likes to impress you with money, who reads only comics and is proud of the fact, who is cheap, who loves to be pampered, who forgets that you are around but makes it quite obvious that he wants attention. I dislike a boy who is a poor dancer, who constantly brags, who will flirt with every girl he sees while with you. I dislike a boy who does not shave or who is a flashy dresser or who is conceited. I dislike a boy who is cheap, quiet, moody, sensitive, unreliable, dishonest, or who lies, drinks excessively or uses profane language.

Traits disliked in girls by 17-year-old boys

I dislike a girl who talks too much, who dresses sloppy, who thinks she is cute and isn't. I dislike a girl who gossips. I hate a girl who thinks she is "it." I hate loud mouths. I hate smokers. I hate girls who are always going to sleep. I dislike girls who talk too much. I dislike girls who talk about their last date when they are out with you. I dislike girls who like nothing but dancing, or girls who do not dance and girls who forget that they are your date.²

During early adolescence, a boy and girl tend to be little more than good pals; their relationship does not differ much from that of friends of the same sex. With the development of the sex urges, however, a gradual change in boy-girl attitudes occurs. There is a tendency toward avoiding group activities. The two become more interested in each other than in sharing social activities with their former pals. They experience an urge toward physical contact. To hold hands, to touch shoulders, or to steal a kiss is thrilling. The pair have entered a dream world. Temporarily at least, school work and other responsibilities and interests may be neglected. The permanency of young love and its effect on the young couple concerned depend on many factors,

² L. D. Crow, "Personality Traits Admired by Adolescents," *The Clearing House*, Vol. 29, No. 1, September, 1954, pp. 25-26.

among which are the emotional stability of the two and the attitude toward them of parents and teachers.

Attitude toward Teachers During these school years, boys may become hero-worshippers and girls develop "crushes." A favorite male teacher may become a boy's model in appearance, attitude, and behavior. A relatively young, sympathetic, attractive woman teacher may stimulate a boy to dreams of heroism. He rescues the teacher from dangerous situations or performs other great and noble deeds, winning for himself her gratitude and admiration.

Girls are likely to develop a feeling of great admiration for a particularly attractive woman teacher. The girl's behavior may become somewhat like that of a faithful dog. She follows the teacher around the school building and even to her home. She waits at strategic points to watch the woman pass. She telephones to or writes notes to the teacher on any pretext. She may even compose poetry with the teacher as heroine. She copies the woman's style of dress and imitates her behavior.

A little later the girl may shift her affections from the woman and develop a "crush" for a male member of the faculty. Generally, a girl's pursuit of the man differs from her manner of following the woman. She is likely to stay after class to ask him a question. She may study very hard in order to please him or sit in class gazing at him dreamily. If he is married, she dislikes his wife intensely—though vaguely: it is the *idea*, not the person, she dislikes. Even though she has never seen the woman, she convinces herself that the wife does not understand her husband and is not the proper mate for him. The girl may use every artifice at her command to draw the man's attention to herself. The behavior of a girl in this state is almost certain to cause the teacher a great deal of embarrassment. It requires tactful firmness for a teacher to extricate himself from this situation with dignity and without hurting the young person's self-respect.

For most young people, these temporary attachments to teachers have no serious results. Admiration or even "love" for a teacher of the same sex does not necessarily mean that the young person has homosexual tendencies. It is no more than the

overenthusiasm we all sometimes have for people and ideas that are new to us.

To ensure that nothing abnormal develops from this perfectly normal experience, there should be made available in school, at home, and in the community, many opportunities for the adolescent to engage in healthful and enjoyable social activities with other young people of both sexes. A day that is filled with worthwhile, interesting projects leaves little time for expressions of undue interest in teachers.

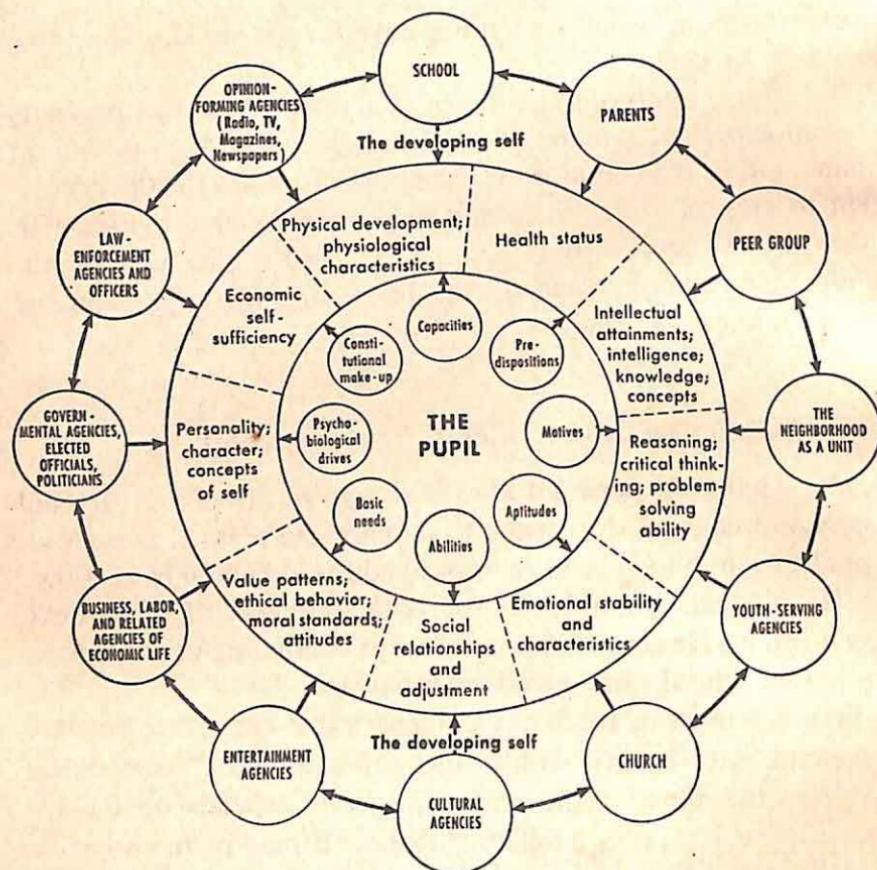
INFLUENCES ON ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT

The adolescent does not always recognize the reasons for his behavioral changes during the teen years. He regards himself as a realist even though he may seem to adults to be highly unrealistic. His interests and attitudes reflect the influence of various external forces. He sometimes experiences conflicting conditions in his home, school, and social relationships.

Figure 4 presents the many influences that can either encourage or militate against wholesome and satisfactory personality development. Good adolescent adjustment depends on the influence of at least one stabilizing agency. It may be the home or church; it should be the school, in addition to either or both of the others.

Effect of Teen-Age Experiences Teen-agers tend to take themselves and their experiences with their parents and with other boys and girls very seriously. Many boys, especially those interested in sports, are likely to be more objective and less concerned than girls about their relationships with other people. Girls are prone to discuss their feelings with close friends of the same sex or to give vent to their emotions by keeping a diary of their interests and activities, sometimes over a period of several years.

To illustrate the turmoil and the problems of growing up that can be experienced by a teen-age girl, we quote from a diary covering ages thirteen to sixteen of a young woman who now is



(W. M. Alexander and J. G. Saylor, *Modern Secondary Education*, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1959, p. 361.)

Figure 4. Factors Influencing the Development and Character of the Individual

a college senior. The diary recounts her experiences with her family and with girl and boy associates.

DIARY OF A TEEN-AGE GIRL

Dear Diary,

Happy New Year. Since you will have a lot to hear from me this year I'll give you a name. It is "Jane."

Well, Jane, I just don't know what I'm going to do. All I have in common with my parents is fights. I wish we could be pals. I say "boo" and I'm being fresh. I fool around with them and I am slapped, and if I walk out of the room I am running away from everything. I ate out with Phyllis and her parents. I stayed with her and Sharon to-day. Only 14 more days till my birthday. Good night.

1/3—I am going to stick to this resolution "Don't talk about anyone." Today I read Sharon's [her best friend] first love letter. It was mushy.

1/8—To-day I did not find it too pleasant. Harvey, the boy across the street, handled the snow department beautifully. Carol came over and we studied French. Only 7 more days to go. I wonder when Janice will answer me. Au revoir.

1/15—Happy birthday to me! Happy Barbara! Happy Birthday to me. Tonight I am 13 years old.

12/18—I have two million and one things to say to you. As you know I ran for president. I lost, but Jerry won. I am glad I didn't win because I am in a better club now—Senior Publications. We plan Senior activities. I don't dislike Jerry any more. He's not so bad when you get to know him. I am in a very nice class this year. When you're a senior you have a lot of freedom. When we got our report cards I failed in science. So I am being punished.

1/1—Janice kept me company tonight. We had a lot of fun. I read her my 1953 Diary. It's funny to laugh at now. But I was quite serious when I wrote it. I saw Arnie today. He's very handsome. I wonder if I like him. Sometimes I like a lot of boys at once.

1/4—Jerry and I acted the same as usual toward each other, like friendly enemies. Jerry and I were the only ones going my way, so he offered to walk me home. If he said eight words it was a lot. If I said something he wouldn't answer me. So we walked in silence, not the friendly kind.

1/5—I saw Jerry today and ignored him. Sharon walked home at lunch time with Jerry. He told her that the last time he walked home with me I acted cold toward him (I didn't let him kiss me). I think he still likes me, but his pride won't let him admit it. I could like him—if only he was in the ninth grade.

My father said that if he knew I was going with Sharon he wouldn't let me go to the library. He thinks that I should "cultivate" new friends. My parents don't even try to understand me.

3/11—Two weeks ago my parents and I had a long talk. My parents said that they did not want me to see boys so much (much, ha!) and I should not stay with Sharon because she is a bad influence. Little do they know Sharon and I have different ideas on lots of things and she does things that are queer. My parents say that when I get

older I will think of them. I tried for two weeks to change, but it won't do. They won't look at it from my point of view and my stubborn self won't do what they want. I love them both very much, but I guess we'll always be parents and children.

5/12—I get along better with my parents. Much better with my mother, a little better with my father. I am on a diet with pills from my doctor. I am baby sitting for my parents (baby brother Gary) who isn't a bother.

9/12—Tonight I went out until 8:30. I was wearing my "Shadow" club sweater. Kenny was wearing his club jacket and he wanted to change with me. So I have his jacket and he has my sweater.

1/1—Happy New Year! and I really hope it's a happy year. Peace on earth and good will to men is my wish. I am going to try to make this a really progressive year for myself.

5/24—Another summer is coming and I'm afraid it will be very boring. I have a mad crush on a boy named Jay. I am very confused, frustrated, and let's face it—hard up. I haven't gone out since November. Of course I have gone to parties, but what's that? I have a very good baby-sitting job so whenever I baby-sit I tell the boys I have a date.

8/20—As I predicted, the summer has been dull. I went out on a blind date. He was awful.

8/26—The boys that Joan and I were supposed to go out with came a little late. They got lost. Then, because we didn't want to go in the car, they left. So we didn't go out. Then Joan and I met Harvey and Jay at the Park.

9/1—I want to be thin this winter if it kills me. I have a feeling I'm going to like school very much this coming term. I even think I'll go on dates. (Not blind dates. They don't count.)

1/15—Well, I'm 16 at last. Now I'm afraid. Only four more years and I'll be 20. I'll be getting married soon. (I hope.) Today some relatives came over. I showed my gifts to them. Daddy bought me my first pack of cigarettes (against his will). My parents don't care for me to smoke. So I'm not going to get into the habit.

2/16—I realize now why a lot of girls want to go steady. Going steady means no worries about boys. I don't want to go steady right now, with anyone. I just want to go *steadily*.

4/30—I think I'm a big disappointment to my parents. I have to invite a boy to sweet 16. I might ask Harvey. But I'm afraid he will say "No." Then he'll have something to tell his friends.

7/4—Sometimes I feel that my mother likes my brother Gary better than me. I don't really believe this, because I know she loves both of us equally. I feel that my Mom, Dad and brother are just about tops. I really don't understand why I'm writing all this. Maybe because it's the 4th of July. I think that if all families were as happy as mine is, the whole world would be at peace.

8/2—[The last entry] I got 70 on my English Regents and 90 in American History. School starts in two weeks. I am graduating from high school this coming January. I must lose ten more pounds.

I went on a blind date a couple of weeks ago. It was miserable. Harvey and I are not on friendly terms. Jay came back from the country. It feels very good not liking him. But I am getting into a "feel sorry for myself" mood. Naturally it's because of boys. I can't wait to see Jerry. He is a boy who was in my history class last term. We got to be very friendly. Good night.

This diary and many others the authors have been privileged to read, as well as confidences given them by adolescents, indicate some of the problems of growing up. Most boys and girls love their parents but sometimes resent parental restrictions on their activities; they confide in but quarrel with close friends of the same sex. Many girls seek the company of boys, perhaps of a special boy, but are not yet ready to devote all their time and interest to one; some boys are bashful and ill-at-ease with girls and need help in matters such as dating, proper grooming and dress.

Teen-agers are sensitive to their associates' attitudes toward them and they want to be liked. Any lack of popularity may be blamed on others, but more often becomes the source of worry about a supposed personal failing. School study usually is important, but is secondary to peer-group relations. A parent once said that his adolescent son and daughter would not be happy unless they could find something to worry about. This statement may be somewhat strong, but adult maturity cannot be achieved without some conflict during adolescence.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Was the advent of pubescence easy or difficult for you? Explain.
2. Select two seventeen-year-olds, a boy and a girl, whom you have known well for four years. Compare their physical, mental, and emotional development from the age of 13 to the present. What differences do you find? Which one appears now to be the more mature and why?
3. Recall and list some of your own adolescent problems associated with the development of the growth pattern.
4. Insofar as you can remember or identify them, name your two strongest urges or desires: (1) as a fourteen-year-old, (2) as a sixteen-year-old, (3) at present. For each one of these urges, describe ways in which you tried to satisfy it.
5. List at least four ways in which an adolescent may attempt to assert his independence. In what ways does he give indications of still being dependent on adults? Give illustrations from your own observation—not giving names, of course.
6. As an adolescent, what was your favorite daydream?
7. Why do some adolescents perform scholastically less successfully than they did as children or than they will as adults?
8. Compare your intellectual interests as a young adolescent, as a middle adolescent, and as you are now.
9. As an adolescent, did you have great emotional disturbances? If so, what caused them?
10. What was your adolescent attitude toward your parents, your older brothers and sisters, and younger children in the family? What kind of behavior on their part motivated you to develop these attitudes?
11. Recall a teacher whom you admired and one whom you disliked. How do you explain the difference in your attitudes toward them?
12. List all the clubs or other groups to which you belonged during your secondary-school years. What caused you to join these groups and how active were you?
13. Try to list in order all the special friends of the opposite sex with whom you thought you were in love during adolescence. What characteristics did each possess that attracted you? How long did the emotional attachment last and what caused your interest to wane?

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The Secondary-School Curriculum

During the past half century, curricular principles and practices in the elementary school have undergone almost revolutionary changes, while until recently, the secondary school, especially the senior high school, seemed reluctant to change its curricular offerings. At present, however, educators are giving considerable thought to the purposes of education on the secondary level and to ways of achieving them.

MEANING OF CURRICULUM

The term *curriculum* is subject to various interpretations. In the broadest meaning of the term, the curriculum includes all the learning experiences provided by the school: class study, out-of-class student activities, health and recreational services, and guidance services. The term curriculum also is used to designate a unit of courses systematically arranged to meet the learning interests of certain students, such as "the business education curriculum," or the "college preparatory curriculum." The content of a group of courses may also be referred to as its curriculum: "the social studies curriculum" or "the mathematics curriculum." Teachers sometimes use the term *school program* to describe the total curricular offerings of a school.

General versus Specialized Education The total curriculum of the secondary school fulfills two major functions: *general education* and *specialized education*. As a member of his various groups, a person needs to share in the general understandings of these groups. There are attitudes, knowledges, and activities that are common in one form or another to all active, self-preserving, socially outgoing human beings. The newer cur-

riculums are attempting to provide for the learning of skills, knowledges, and attitudes that most people need, regardless of their specific educational needs. Specialized education, of course, is necessary to achieve occupational competence. The kind and extent of a person's specialization varies with his needs, interests, and abilities.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Since the curriculum is built on accepted educational goals, the factors that shape the formulation of secondary-school objectives also operate in the development of curriculums. These factors include the learning potentialities of young people, the demands of our culture, and people's fundamental ideals, aspirations, and values (see Chapter 2). Acceptance of goals does not, however, imply agreement about what constitutes the most effective means of achieving those goals. Consequently, the development of suitable curriculums to meet the demands of our time is a continuous process.

The major issues arising in attempts to develop curriculums that will receive general approval are rooted in the following:

1. Persistence of traditional patterns of subject-centered curriculums
2. Continuing influence of the theory of mental discipline
3. College-entrance requirements
4. Attitudes of administrators and teachers
5. Size of the school population
6. Attitudes of the public

The Subject-Centered Curriculum The secondary school, particularly the senior high school, has inherited certain fixed patterns of curricular offerings. At the beginning of the present century, study beyond the elementary school was supposed to give the learner an appreciation of his social heritage, of contemporary cultural patterns, and of the realities of life. The curriculum was organized according to subject areas, each of which was studied separately, with only incidental reference to the materials of other subject areas. Textbooks often were the

only sources of learning content. There was little, if any, concern with the application to everyday life of material learned in the classroom. Many senior-high-school curriculums still are organized according to this pattern. Many junior high schools (grades 7, 8, and 9), however, have developed more flexible curriculums that stress common learnings or general education.

The Theory of Mental Discipline With the addition to the curriculum of newer subject areas, a crowded curriculum made it necessary to re-examine the value of keeping in the curriculum some learning areas (Greek or Latin, for example) that no longer seemed to meet pupils' needs. School people who were teaching a subject that seemed to be on the way out of the curriculum were loath, naturally, to see their particular subject discarded. They were faced with the challenge of devising reasons for the continuance of the subject in the curriculum. Out of this struggle emerged the defensive justification of outmoded subject matter on the basis of its transfer or disciplinary values. Some educators still claim that the study of mathematics or formal logic disciplines the learner's thinking process, thereby ensuring for him the power to solve any problems which he may encounter. The study of Latin is defended on the grounds that it will improve the student's skill in the use of English.

Preparation for College Entrance When the function of the secondary school was primarily college preparation, its curriculum was dominated by college entrance requirements. Academic senior high schools continue to be organized to meet college prerequisites.

Admission to most colleges requires the completion of from 15 to 17 units of study including three or four years of English, at least two years of social studies and of mathematics, at least one year of science, some health education, and a minimum of art and music. To these basic requirements some colleges add from two to four years of at least one foreign language and one or more years of science beyond the first year. Usually, selection of the remaining courses to complete the number of units required for entrance is limited to a list of college-suggested courses, generally academic in content. Some colleges, how-

ever, are relaxing their former rigid entrance requirements and are becoming more interested in the *quality* of the student.

Attitudes of School Administrators and Teachers Some secondary-school people recognize the need for curricular change and are willing to do something about it. Others, while realizing that the older curriculums may leave much to be desired, are indifferent to recommended improvements. Still others are so completely satisfied with the educational situation as it is that they resist any attempt to change the *status quo*.

Excessive administrative detail and overcrowded courses of study are the main causes of apathy toward curriculum reorganization. Each school day is filled with more or less routine activities connected with school management and teaching. Too, many teachers have not been trained in procedures needed to implement curriculum organization. For instance, most secondary-school teachers are subject-matter experts who find it difficult to guide young people in relatively informal learning activities and who may not possess the broad knowledge needed to help pupils integrate their learning.

Size of the School Population The kind and extent of curriculum reorganization are determined to a great degree by the size of the school population and the number of schools involved. When there is one secondary school in a district, that school becomes a unit for curriculum development, and the organization is relatively direct and uncomplicated. Yet there is little opportunity for curricular diversification. When there are over 130 junior high schools and more than 80 academic, technical, and vocational high schools (as in New York City school system), a complex organizational pattern is needed both in the individual schools and in the central offices, if the necessary curriculum activities are to be carried on. School administrators who are responsible for the educational welfare of a vast army of young people dare not make too rapid changes in patterns of curriculum organization. They have many types of pupils to serve and many public demands to meet. Modifications in the existing curriculum must be made slowly and carefully.

Attitude of the Public The citizens hold the purse strings; hence they must be convinced that the extra cost involved in a reorganization of the secondary-school program is worth the money. Whatever is done must be justifiable from a practical "dollars-and-cents" point of view.

Some parents and other interested citizens criticize the educational program their children are pursuing. When provisions for improved offerings or procedures are contemplated or inaugurated, these same parents may be loud in their denunciations of educational "fads and frills." Part of this attitude can be traced to memories of their own school experiences. They recall the subjects which they studied and in which they succeeded. If they have been moderately successful in their adult activities, they attribute their success to the kind of training they received in their youth. The more rigid the training was, the more likely they are to believe that their success resulted from the type of education provided by their secondary school or college.

There are, of course, many forward-looking citizens who realize that education, through appropriate curricular offerings, can lead an adolescent to translate into action attitudes of high idealism based on a solid foundation of knowledge. These citizens offer encouragement to curriculum constructors seeking new ways to meet the challenge of secondary education.

CURRICULUM PATTERNS

The educators' attempt to meet the general and specialized educational needs of secondary-school pupils has resulted in considerable experimentation in curriculum organization. It sometimes is difficult to distinguish among supposedly different curricular approaches. At present, however, there seem to be four separate commonly accepted curriculum patterns:

1. The subject curriculum
2. The broad-fields curriculum
3. The core curriculum
4. The experience curriculum

It is not to be assumed that these four patterns have nothing in common.

Listed in this way, as discrete patterns, one might get the erroneous impression that the subject curriculum avoids experience or that the experience curriculum does not employ subject content. One might, similarly, get the idea that broad-fields or core programs have by some magic avoided subjects or experience. Such implications miss the point of the analysis. Each curriculum pattern employs subject matter; each pattern makes use of experience. In every curriculum plan, content is employed, pupils engage in some type of activity, the interest of pupils is sought, teacher-pupil planning can be done.

One could also, in viewing these four patterns, assume that they represented a hierarchy or a continuum—that somehow as a teacher improved in educational skill he moved from "subjects" along a road with stations at "broad-fields" and "core," arriving finally at full maturity to "experience." This assumption would be considered false by some educators. These patterns represent distinctive ways of organizing a curriculum. While there are relationships, priority can be given only by individual judgment until more scientific evidence is available. The analysis by patterns is valuable in bringing out the central emphases and the relative weighing of the significant elements.¹

The Subject Curriculum Within the framework of the subject curriculum, the bases of general education are included in the curriculum *constants*—those subjects that are required for graduation from a secondary school regardless of the specialized curriculums elected. The *limited* electives include those subjects that are required for the future educational or vocational plans of the student. The *free* electives may be selected according to student interest from the list of such courses offered.

The following is a program of studies for junior high schools.

SAN DIEGO CITY SCHOOLS
Secondary Schools Division

The following is the approved Program of Studies for Junior High Schools. Variations in this pattern of course offerings should be made only with the approval of the superintendent of schools. However, variations to meet the special needs of individual students may be approved by the principal.

¹ *American School Curriculum, Thirty-first Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1953, p. 58.*

*Subject Areas and Courses**Required**7th Grade*

English 7th
Physical Education
Social Studies 7th

Arithmetic 7th

Homemaking 7th or Industrial Arts: General Shop 7th, Graphic Arts 7th, Woodworking 7th, Drafting 7th
Art 7th and/or Music: Music 7th, Band, Chorus, Orchestra

8th Grade

English 8th

Physical Education

Social Studies: U.S. History 8th

Arithmetic 8th (or Advanced Mathematics 8th)

Science 8th (1 semester)

Industrial Arts (1 semester):

Electricity 8th, General Metal 8th, Graphic Arts 8th, or

Homemaking 8th (1 semester)

Elective

Foreign Language: Spanish 7th, French 7th, (Elective for students completing required courses in summer school.)

Art 8th

Business Education: Typing 8th (1 semester personal use)

Music: Band, Chorus, Orchestra

Foreign Language: Conversational Spanish

Homemaking 8th

Industrial Arts: Electricity 8th, General Metal 8th, Graphic Arts 8th

School Service: Office Service, Library Practice

Science: General Science 1-2 (8th)

Speech Arts: Speech 8th

9th Grade

English 1-2

Physical Education

Science: General Science 1-2, 3-4, or Social Studies: World Geography 1-2, World History 1-2

Art 1-2

Business Education: Basic Business 1-2, Typing 1-2

Foreign Language: French 1-2, Latin 1-2, Spanish 1-2, German 1-2

Science: General Science 1-2, 3-4

Homemaking 1-2

Industrial Arts: Drafting 1-2, Electricity 1-2, General Metal

1-2, Graphic Arts 1-2, Woodworking 1-2

Mathematics: Mathematics A-B, General Mathematics 1-2, Algebra 1-2, Mathematics 3-4

Music: Band, Chorus, Orchestra
School Service: Office Service, Library Practice, Student Government, Publications, Stagecraft

Speech Arts: Public Speaking 1-2, Drama 1-2

Social Studies: World Geography 1-2, World History 1-2.

Since basic curriculum requirements are the responsibility of each state, they vary somewhat among the states. In New York State, for example, provision is made for the granting of a junior-high-school diploma on the completion of recommended courses of study. Certain subjects are required by the state; others can be selected from a list of approved electives. The centralized school district of Northwestern New York State provides a worthwhile program of studies for the children of the community. (See Table 12.)

A senior-high-school diploma can be earned in each of three curriculums: academic (college preparatory), commercial, and general. The curriculum of the George Wingate High School is presented to illustrate a secondary-school program and the requirements for graduation.

CURRICULUM FOR GEORGE W. WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL,
NEW YORK CITY
(PUPIL POPULATION 3,350)

Requirements for Graduation

Prescribed courses for *Academic*, *Commercial* and *General* Diploma

	Units
English	4
Social studies	3½
*Science (Academic)	2
(Commercial and General)	1
*Mathematics (Academic)	2
(Commercial and General)	1

Table 12. Amherst Central Junior High School Curriculum, 1960

Subject	Grade	No. Wks.	Periods Per Wk.	Required or Elective	Subject	Grade	No. Wks.	Periods Per Wk.	Required or Elective
Unified Eng. & Cit. Ed.	7	40	13	R	Fine Art	7	40	2	R
	8	40	12	R	Mech. Draw.	9	40	5	E
	9	40	10	R	Music	7	40	5	E
General Science	7	20	5	R	Gen. Music	9	40	5	E
	8	20	5	R	Home Econ.	7	20	5	R Girls
	9	40	5	R	Boys H.E.	8	20	5	R Boys
Mathematics	7	40	5	R	Ind. Arts	7	20	5	E
	8	40	5	E		8	20	5	R
	9	40	5	E		**9	20	5	E
Conv. French	8	40	5	E		**9	20	5	E
German	9	40	5	E		**8	20	5	E
Spanish	8	40	5	E		**9	40	5	E
Modern Language	9	40	1	*	Phys. Ed.	7	40	2	R
French 1	9	40	5	E	Gym-2; Swim-1	8	40	3	R
German 1	9	40	5	E		9	40	3	R
Spanish 1	9	40	5	E	Creative Writ.	8	40	5	E
Latin 1	9	40	5	E	Dramatics	8	40	5	E
Business Intro. to Business	8	40	5	E	Elem. Psych.	9	40	5	E
	9	40	5	E		8	40	5	E

* Teacher visits 5 unified groups successive days per week; teaches French to 2; Spanish to 3. Experimental. 20 min. per wk.

** Pupils who have not taken industrial arts in 7th & 8th take General Ind. Arts in 9th; others take 10 weeks each of Electric, Graphic, Metal and Woodshop. In Home Econ., those who have had none, take a different course in the 9th.

*** Coupled.

Health Teaching (Hygiene)	1/2
Commercial Law (Commercial)	1/2
Art Appreciation	1/2
Music Appreciation	1/2
Health Education (each term) #	1/2
Total Prescribed units:	
Academic Diploma	13 1/2
Commercial Diploma	12
General Diploma	11 1/2

* Each of these is to be included in a suitable group below.

Note: Driver Education to be given within the time allocated to Physical Education in years 11 or 12.

Elective Courses

Academic Course. A. A three year group in foreign language, science, mathematics	3
B. A two-year group in foreign language, science, mathematics	2
C. A two-year group in foreign language, science, and mathematics. (A student who is a candidate for this diploma may not offer modified courses to satisfy groups A, B, or C)	
D. A miscellaneous group of any five terms of major subjects (but no less than two terms of a foreign language)	2 1/2
Total elective units	9 1/2
Net elective units	5 1/2
***Total units	19
** 13 of these units to be completed in Grades 10, 11, 12	

Required Regents Examinations

English 4 years	3 Regents Units
American and World History	3 Regents Units
Electives	5 Regents Units
Total	11 Regents Units

Commercial Course. A. A three-year group in one of the following areas: bookkeeping or stenography and typewriting or merchandising and salesmanship

(NOTE: One year of mathematics 9th year or one year of arithmetic for daily living or one year of business arithmetic may be combined with two years of bookkeeping or merchandising and salesmanship for a three-year group.)

B.	A two-year group selected from Group A.	2
	(NOTE: One year of mathematics 9th year or one year of arithmetic for daily living or one year of business arithmetic may be combined with one year of bookkeeping or merchandising and salesmanship for a two-year group.)	
C.	One two-unit sequence from any of the following: foreign languages, science, mathematics, elective art, mechanic arts, home economics	2
D.	Miscellaneous subjects: any four terms of major subjects	2
	Total elective units	9
	Net elective units (2 units are included in prescribed courses)	7
	Total Units**	19

** 13 of these units must be completed in Grades 10, 11, 12.

General Course.	A. A three-year group from one subject area	3
B.	A two-year group from a second subject area	2
C.	Seven terms of miscellaneous subjects (of prepared courses or equivalent unprepared courses).	3½
	Total Elective Units	8½
	Net Elective Units (2 units are included in prescribed courses)	6½
	Total Units**	18

** 12 of these units must be completed in years 10, 11, 12.

In grouping subjects in Groups 2A and 2B, half units are not to be included unless earned in subjects which are in the course of study as half year subjects.

The following groups may be used to fulfill the elective group requirements:

- A. Foreign languages.
- B. Mathematics (including arithmetic for daily living and business arithmetic).
- C. Social Studies (subjects not used for prescribed social studies).
- D. Science (including home economics and nursing).
- E. Secretarial and commercial courses (including accounting, business practice, business law, office machines, stenography, typewriting, clerical practice, filing, merchandising).
- F. Home Arts (including home economics-food, home economics-clothing, nursing, practical nursing).
- G. Music (other than required music).
- H. Art (other than required art).
- I. Industrial arts (including type, arts and crafts, shop, mechanical drafting).

Effective for students entering high school

September 1959

Required Regents Examinations

English 4 years	3 Regents Units
American History & World Backgrounds	3 Regents Units
Commercial Subject	2 Regents Units
Stenography and Typewriting—3 units or Book- keeping—2 units or Merchandising 2 units.	
Total Regents Units	9 or 8 Regents Units

Attempts have been made to correlate the content of two or more subject areas—that is, the subject matter of one course is related to that of another wherever possible. The correlation may be on a chronological basis: the literature of a particular period is studied in the English classes at the same time that the history of the period is studied in the social studies classes. The teachers concerned agree on the learning material to be considered in both classes. In the English classes, oral reports or written compositions may embody subject matter that is studied in other courses. The teacher of English shares with other subject teachers responsibility for the oral and written expression of the

learners. Correlation between subjects can be facilitated by having one teacher for two subjects. For example, many junior high schools have an extended-period arrangement in which one teacher conducts the work in seventh-grade English and social studies with the same group of pupils in a daily double-class period. Opportunities to relate the learnings in the two subjects are utilized. An incidental benefit is that the number of teachers the new seventh-grade pupils must meet is reduced.

The Broad-Fields Curriculum Attempts have been made to fuse or combine learning material so that the fragmentation of learning into discrete subject units will be avoided. As still practiced in many schools, the fused curriculum involves combining various phases of the same subject into one general course. In the ninth year, for example, a first course in science (called general science) includes some of the fundamentals of biology, chemistry, physics, and astronomy. Courses that at one time were taught independently, such as history, civics, economics, and geography, are fused into an integrated curriculum called "social studies." Another example is the attempt to combine various phases of mathematical study into one course known as "general mathematics" or "survey of mathematics."

In the broad-fields curriculum there is also a fusion of different subject areas, such as English, general mathematics, social studies, and general science. Major areas of life activities—health and physical fitness, vocational activities, social relationships, and use of leisure time are suggested as the bases of curriculums in which subject matter can be treated functionally. Opinions differ concerning the value of this type of curriculum organization. Some educators believe that the broad-fields curriculum brings about a general understanding that has more practical value for the student than mastery of isolated facts. Others claim that the plan is cumbersome; that departmentalization of subject matter is not eliminated; and that the selection of subject matter to be included is difficult, resulting, perhaps, in the omission of important learning materials.

The Core Curriculum and the Experience Curriculum These two types of curriculum organization, although often considered

separately, are basically related. The core curriculum emphasizes *purpose* and *organization* of learning materials; the experience curriculum emphasizes *procedures* and *activities* through which learning is achieved. Some learning experiences are assumed to be of value to all pupils; with these common areas as the core, a curriculum is built in which traditional subject-matter lines are disregarded. The core curriculum is organized to meet the learner's needs in his personal adjustment and social relations, and to make him aware of conditions and problems in his community.

In those schools in which the core-experience curriculum is used to provide for general education, the school day is so divided that the students spend from two to four periods in what often are called *block-time classes* and devote the remainder of the day to special subjects in regular-length periods. The lengthened period in the core or block-time class allows for field trips or other *experiences*, either in or outside the school, that are of interest and value to the students.

The core may include materials selected from several subject areas. English and social studies usually are included. In some ninth-year programs the core draws its material from several subject fields, such as English, social studies, science, and art, and involves planning by the class teacher with pupils and other teachers. An attempt is made to fuse the content of these subjects.

As an example of integrated learning activities, a core unit approach to *The Ancient Mariner* will be described briefly. The group reads the poem and discusses its meaning and style. At the same time reference is made to the period in history in which the story is supposed to have taken place; the course of the ship is traced with the aid of a map; climatic conditions, storm areas, and the like are considered; the habits of the albatross and similar birds are noted; and, finally, the pupils are motivated to draw an illustration of an incident in the narrative. The discussion of the poem is accompanied by carefully prepared research studies by individual members of the class. Thus will the interest of the pupils be aroused and the learning unit be successful in indicating applications of the theme of the poem to present-day situations.

Although in present core classes there may be gaps in the learning material as outlined for regular subjects, the young people achieve desirable attitudes of co-operation, acquire broad concepts of human relationships, and enjoy a form of controlled freedom that should serve them well in their out-of-school relationships. Learning experiences can fulfill their avowed purposes, however, only when consideration is given to (1) the readiness of teachers to engage in these teaching-learning activities, (2) the state certification requirements for secondary-school teachers (at present designed too much according to subject lines), and (3) the extent of the understanding and acceptance by the public of this type of curricular organization.

THE CURRICULUM AND VARYING ACADEMIC ABILITIES

Curriculum patterns organized by subjects have been based primarily on the abilities of average secondary-school students. Many school systems are now giving attention to the special needs of the academically talented and the mentally slow.

Adaptations for the Academically Talented The problem of the curriculum changes needed to serve the pupils of high academic ability has been highlighted by reports of national significance, *The Pursuit of Excellence: Education and the Future America*, a publication of the Rockefeller Brothers Fund, and *The American High School Today*, by James B. Conant.

The Rockefeller Report frankly and squarely faces the question as to whether curriculum adaptations in the interests of pupils of high ability are consistent with our democratic beliefs.

It is possible to state in fairly simple terms the views concerning equality which would receive most widespread endorsement in our country today. The fundamental view is that in the final matters of human existence all men are equally worthy of our care and concern. Further, we believe that all men should be equal in enjoyment of certain familiar legal, civil, and political rights. They should, as the phrase goes, be equal before the law.

But men are unequal in their native capacities and their motivations, and therefore in their attainments. In elaborating our national

views of equality, the most widely accepted means of dealing with this problem has been to emphasize *equality of opportunity*. The great advantage of the conception of equality of opportunity is that it candidly recognizes differences in endowment and motivation, and accepts the certainty of differences in achievement. By allowing free play to these differences, it preserves the freedom to excel which counts for so much in terms of individual aspirations and has produced so much of mankind's greatness.²

The Rockefeller Report suggests three considerations related to the pursuit of excellence:

1. Our conception of excellence must embrace many kinds of achievement at many levels.
2. We must not assume that native capacity is the sole ingredient in superior performance. Excellence . . . is a product of ability and motivation and character.
3. We must recognize that judgments of differences in talent are not judgments of differences in human worth.³

Many plans have been evolved to meet the learning needs of academically-talented pupils. Conant's suggestions for these boys and girls are given here.

A policy in regard to the elective programs of academically talented boys and girls should be adopted by the school to serve as a guide to the counselors. In the type of school I am discussing the following program should be strongly recommended as a minimum:

Four years of mathematics, four years of one foreign language, three years of science, in addition to the required four years of English and three years of social studies; a total of eighteen courses with homework to be taken in four years. This program will require at least fifteen hours of homework each week.

Many academically talented pupils may wish to study a second foreign language or an additional course in social studies. Since such students are capable of handling twenty or more courses with homework, these additional academic courses may be added to the recommended minimum program. If the school is organized on a seven- or eight-period day (Recommendation 12), at least one additional

² From: The Pursuit of Excellence-Education And The Future of America, p. 16. Copyright © 1958 Rockefeller Brothers Fund, Inc. Reprinted by permission of Doubleday & Company, Inc.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

course without homework (for example, art or music) may also be scheduled each year.

If as school policy a minimum academic program including both mathematics and a foreign language is recommended to the academically talented pupils and their parents, the counselors will have the problem of identifying as early as possible the members of the group. It may well be that, in the next lower 10 or 20 per cent of the boys and girls in terms of scholastic aptitude on a national basis, there are a number who ought to be guided into similar but less rigorous programs.⁴

High-ability pupils require greater learning challenge than their less able schoolmates. In many school systems special provision is made for the intellectually gifted. In Cleveland, for example, pupils who give evidence of high academic ability by attaining intelligence quotients of 125 or above in individual psychological tests, by performing well on group achievement tests, and by teachers' judgments are assigned, with parents' understanding and approval, to major work centers.

In one of Cleveland's six-year junior-senior high schools, mentally superior pupils are grouped homogeneously for their academic subjects. They associate with boys and girls of all levels of ability in their homerooms, in physical education, industrial arts, home economics, music and art, and in the co-curricular and extracurricular activities of the school.

Major work classrooms in this school are equipped with movable desks, committee tables and chairs, project and library facilities, charts and maps, and audio-visual aids, in addition to specialized materials for the different subjects. The school librarian works with the classroom teachers to provide necessary reference material. The entire faculty of the school, both junior and senior divisions, is alerted to the work of these groups through faculty meetings, interdepartmental visits and conferences, and class demonstrations.

In this project, discussions and committee work are used extensively in the social studies classrooms. The contributions of important historical personages are stressed through the study

⁴ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1959, pp. 57-58. Quoted with permission of the author. Full report available from the publisher.

of biographical material. Supplementary textbooks, charts, and maps are used continuously. Weekly reports of significant events are made. Research projects and panel discussions contribute to an objective, unbiased understanding of government.

Science teachers aim to arouse curiosity about nature and natural laws, to encourage the pupils to continue science in later years, and to relate scientific principles to everyday problems of living. There is some evidence that this approach is meeting with success.

The major-work pupils discover that they can progress rapidly enough in seventh-grade mathematics to be ready for algebra in the following grade and for a combination of plane and related solid geometry in the ninth grade. This acceleration is not for the purpose of completing required secondary-school study in less time but rather for making possible admission to advanced classes on the senior-high-school level.

French classes utilize games, recordings, and songs, the tape recorder, bulletin boards, and skits to develop the ability to understand, to speak, to read, and to write the language. Advanced work in English includes using such techniques and activities as a comparative study of newspapers and magazines, writing original radio and television scripts, hobby shows, field trips, book clubs, and increased use of the classroom and school libraries. Enough typing skill is acquired to prepare themes and reports in acceptable form.

Throughout the three-year program of the Cleveland junior high school, the committee approach to the solution of pertinent learning problems is emphasized, as is library research. An excellent feature of this procedure is reports by committee members of their findings for the benefit of the entire group. Fundamental skills are not neglected, however. Intensive drill sessions are conducted whenever the need for them is evident.

Adaptations for Slow Learners Inadequate academic progress may result from a number of causes, including limited native ability and meager cultural background. Individuals having an intelligence quotient between 75 and 70 or below often are grouped in special classes for which state subsidy frequently

is available. A special problem is posed for the secondary school by those pupils whose intelligence quotients fall between 75 and 90. Pupils in this low ability range usually are retarded from one to three years. Their reading level may be two to four years below their grade placement, yet their physical growth and social interests tend to be at or beyond those of more able members of their class or grade.

Teachers of academically retarded boys and girls must understand certain principles:

1. Slow pupils can learn within the limits set by their abilities
2. Learning must begin at the level of pupil ability, motivation, achievement, and social maturity.
3. Goals set for social growth, emotional maturation, and academic progress must be commensurate with individual's ability to profit from instruction.
4. Appropriate materials, methods, and activities should stress the use both of reading and of other avenues for learning.
5. Successful learning experiences within their educational limitations will help these pupils become worthwhile members of society.
6. The adequacy of a program for slow learners depends to a great extent on the interest, attitudes, and co-operation of the teachers who work in it.

Materials and teaching methods must be adapted to the needs and limitations of these pupils. It is important for the teacher of slow learners in the secondary school to understand that:

1. The interest span of the slow learner is short.
2. The vocabulary of the slow learner is meager.
3. Slow learners have difficulty forming general conclusions.
4. Slow learners have limited ability to direct their own behavior.
5. Slow learners have more physical defects, on the average, than other young people.

Fortunately, more reading material with low reading difficulty but on a higher level of social maturity and interest is becoming available. Weekly current-events newspapers written for the lower grades can be used if no grade designation appears in the

paper. Much of the teaching material, however, still must be devised by the classroom teacher and by curriculum committees working in this area.

CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

The state legislature is authorized by law to determine the curriculum. In most states this authority is delegated to an established State Board of Education. In some instances, local communities are permitted to develop their own curriculums. When this is the case, the state usually prescribes minimum curriculum requirements. In some sections of the country, failure to adhere to state curriculum standards may result in loss of state aid for local schools.

Theoretically, the construction of a curriculum should be the function of everyone who is associated with the educational process. All citizens should be interested in the problem of curriculum building to the extent that they are interested in the educational welfare of young people. Practically, however, the selection of materials and their organization into usable form becomes the responsibility of a relatively small, well-trained, unbiased group of men and women who understand and can apply the principles of good curriculum construction.

When the curriculum is developed in a local community or school system, all members of the personnel should participate in its construction. The administrative and supervisory personnel, a curriculum co-ordinator, and the classroom teachers share in the construction of a curriculum according to their differing responsibilities. The administrator makes arrangements whereby classroom teachers can bring to the curriculum committee their accumulated classroom experience. The curriculum co-ordinator assembles in workable form the suggestions that have been made by the respective personnel. He has, of course, the assistance of a curriculum committee.

The teacher who is concerned with the improvement of his professional activity will profit from service on curriculum committees. If he is willing to undertake the additional duties of committee membership he will gain broader understanding of current issues in education, increased knowledge of available

materials and effective methods, and a fuller appreciation of the points of view of his associates.

Many contributions to curriculum materials can be made by well-informed teachers who are alert to the social and personal needs of their pupils. The pupils themselves express interest in materials of study which may well be included in the curriculum. For example, an art teacher in a large city high school developed so great an interest among his pupils in the application of artistic principles to everyday living that the girls in his classes requested a course dealing with artistic and safe "make-up" materials and techniques. This request resulted in the inclusion of a simple course in cosmetology for that school. In a similar way a course in home decoration was initiated.

Student interest cannot be accepted, naturally, as the sole or even the primary reason for changing the curriculum, unless the interest shown is widespread and shows signs of being fairly permanent and valuable. The likes and dislikes of young people are often temporary and based on more or less superficial interests. Curriculum builders should encourage expression of student opinion, but should use discretion in granting requests in these matters.

Another powerful determiner of the curriculum is the expressed desires of individual citizens, community leaders, or pressure groups to have included in the curriculum materials of instruction which they consider beneficial to themselves or to the learners, or to both. Among these lay influences are religious, patriotic, and social groups, chambers of commerce, safety agencies, insurance companies, and industrial and commercial organizations.

Organization for Curriculum Construction Ways of working on the curriculum vary greatly from one school system to another. The size of the school district, its past curriculum revisions, and the point of view of the staff influence the pattern of the curriculum operation. Final authority for the curriculum rests with the superintendent of schools and the board of education, subject to the laws and regulations of the state. A number of school systems have a curriculum council which customarily is concerned with determining curriculum policies.

co-ordinating the work of various curriculum committees, considering proposals for curriculum studies, and reviewing the recommendations of the committees. In addition, there may be standing committees functioning according to an agreed plan, or committees formed for specific purposes and disbanded when their purpose has been accomplished.

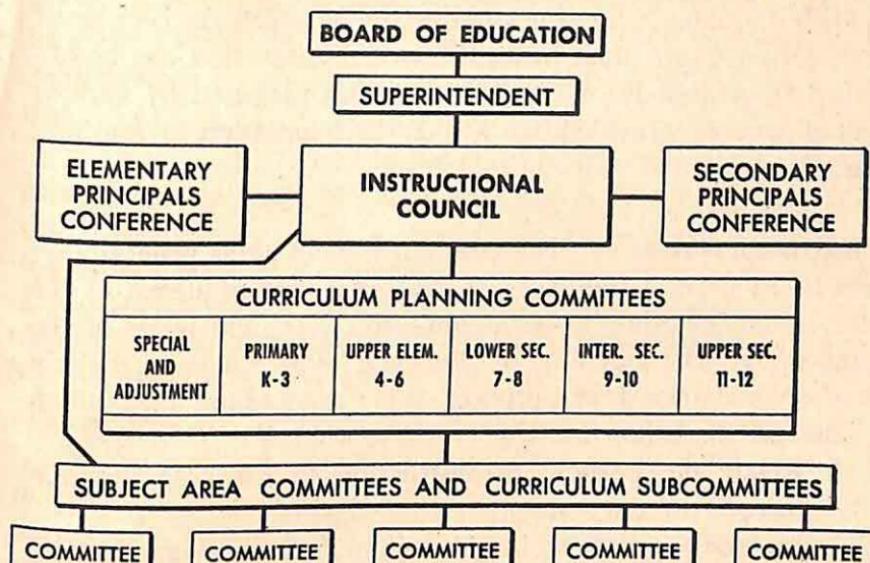
A number of the larger cities have bureaus or divisions of curriculum development or instructional services, with a permanent staff of research personnel, editorial writers, and production specialists. Smaller school districts frequently have a director of curriculum who works closely with teachers' committees and supervisors.

The plan of organization for curriculum development in the San Diego City Schools has a number of interesting characteristics. (See Figure 5.) One important feature is the utilization of grade-level committees rather than committees in separate subject fields. The diagram shows the organization for all grades and the relationships of the grade-level committees to the Instructional Council and to subject area committees.

In the public schools of Louisville, Kentucky, curriculum planning is the responsibility of the Curriculum Council. This group is composed of the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, the director of the Division of Instructional Services, general and special supervisors, and representative principals and teachers. Except for members from the administrative staff, membership on the Council is on a rotating basis. While the Curriculum Council is a continuing group, advisory committees are formed to serve particular purposes suggested by the Council. They disband when their special work has been completed.

Curriculum activities in the Louisville Public Schools are planned to give the greatest possible number of teachers an opportunity to participate. Recently the school system undertook the preparation of an educational platform. This project was preceded by two surveys to determine what teachers, principals, and other instructional leaders wished to have included in their statement of philosophy and basic goals. During the first year preliminary research was followed by the formulation by ten committees of principals and supervisors of a study guide for the development of the educational platform. During the second year, each faculty member studied the principles in the study

PLAN OF ORGANIZATION FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT



("San Diego City Schools in Action," *Curriculum Digest*, Vol. XVIII, No. 1, San Diego City Schools, September, 1957, p. 7. Used by permission.)

Figure 5. Plan of Organization for Curriculum Development

guide and made recommendations to the Division of Curriculum. From these extensive discussions and reports, a rewritten form of the guide became *An Educational Platform for the Louisville Public Schools*.

Curriculum reorganization should be a continuous process. To meet the demands arising from changes in the social order and in the composition of pupil population, some school systems maintain a standing curriculum committee consisting of a trained expert as its leader and members of the administrative and teaching staffs. In some cities, the committee issues a monthly bulletin that is distributed to all members of the school's personnel. Through this bulletin school people are kept informed of current policies and practices and are alerted to curricular needs and trends.

RESOURCE MATERIAL FOR CURRICULUM WORKERS

For school personnel having special curriculum responsibilities much literature is available. Background is provided by textbooks devoted specifically to curriculum development, and manuals accompanying the textbooks often provide valuable

professional suggestions. National professional organizations publish magazines and yearbooks, many of which are concerned with current curriculum issues. Much assistance also can be obtained from a study of curriculum guides prepared by various school systems, provided one avoids the temptation to "cut and paste."

Curriculum Guides The term *curriculum guide* generally refers to an orderly statement of the scope and sequence of the curriculum materials to be taught—the *what* and *when* of the curriculum. The function of the curriculum guide is to help teachers understand the purposes of the curriculum. Curriculum guides do the following:

1. Relate the purpose of instruction to the accepted philosophy of the school
2. Include suggestions for classroom activities—much more than can be used by any one teacher
3. Provide for flexibility so that instruction may be adjusted to the needs and ability levels of particular learners
4. List adequate references and resource materials, supplementary books, and visual aids

A curriculum guide is prepared co-operatively by a committee of classroom teachers, frequently with the assistance and guidance of the supervisory and administrative personnel most directly concerned. The guide may be organized on a unit basis; it usually includes many ideas and procedures from among which the classroom teacher selects those he considers pertinent. The actual writing of the guide usually is done by a member of the curriculum staff.

In a study of the curriculum guides issued by 122 widely distributed school systems during the three year period 1951-53, a 46-per-cent increase in output of curriculum guides, as compared with the preceding three years, and an increase in guides covering the entire twelve grades was noted. The committee procedure was found to be commonly in use, and teachers continued to have a large share in the preparation of the guides.⁵

⁵ See E. Merritt and H. Harap, *Trends in the Production of Curriculum Guides: A Survey of Courses of Study Published in 1951 through 1953*, Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, 1955, p. 40.

The Foreword of the Junior High School Mathematics Guide, a publication of the Cincinnati Public Schools, contains this paragraph:

The manual was developed over a period of three years by teachers who brought together ideas from all the Cincinnati schools. The bulletin was used for a year on a tentative basis and then was revised in accordance with the suggestions offered by each teacher of seventh and eighth grades and in consultation with selected citizens of our community. Thus, this course of study is the product of the thinking of many minds interested in effective teaching of mathematics to the seventh and eight grades.⁶

In the Foreword of the "Instructional Guide in Life Science 1" published by the Los Angeles City Schools, the Associate Superintendent, Division of Instructional Services, indicates how curriculum guides are prepared and the purpose they are expected to serve.

The Instructional Guide in Life Science 1 has been developed to meet the request of teachers, supervisors, and administrators for more specific help in selecting content and learning experiences for the Life Science course. It includes the outline for the course of study in this subject. It provides for special emphasis on health education, meets the State requirements for teaching the harmful effects of alcohol and narcotics, and partially fulfills the State requirement for first aid. It makes an important contribution to education for successful family living. The material presented will serve as a guide to teachers planning for their specific classes.

The publication is organized into units representing five areas of study for the course: Orientation to the Course; What It Means to Be Alive; Living Things React to Their Environment; Living Things Continue Their Kind; Living Things Combat Disease. Each unit contains learning experiences, activities, enrichment activities, and bibliography. Included also are suggestions for evaluation. The guide encourages teachers to make provision for individual differences through the selection of appropriate learning activities. Each unit contains suggested enrichment experiences for mentally superior learners.

It is hoped that this publication will serve as an aid in the improvement of instruction, not only through its use by individual

⁶ Curriculum Bulletin 1, *Mathematics, Junior High School, Grades 7-8*, Cincinnati Public Schools, Cincinnati, 1958. Foreword.

teachers, but also through study and discussion by faculty and in-service groups.⁷

CURRICULUM ARTICULATION

The concept of education as a continuing process implies that there is curriculum agreement or articulation between a school unit and those which precede and follow it. Makers of secondary-school curriculums need to keep in mind the lower school's curricular offerings on which the secondary school's curriculum is built. They need to know about the freshman curriculum in the junior college or four-year college, as well as about the educational needs of those students who will not go beyond the secondary school.

Articulation between Fundamental and Secondary Learning
Problems of articulation differ according to whether the schools are organized according to the 8-4 or the 6-3-3 plan. But in either case, curricular offerings of the first eight years include fundamental learnings: English language arts, simple basic concepts of the sciences and social studies, arithmetic comprehension and computation, health and safety practices, and some homemaking, music, and art. In the ninth year, general education is continued in English, social studies, and science, and specialized education is begun in such areas as foreign language and mathematics.

Articulation between elementary and junior high schools
The curriculum of the seventh and eighth grades of the junior high school usually continues general education where the sixth grade of the elementary school left off. The planners of the junior-high-school curriculum, therefore, need to know not only how far the lower schools go in general learnings, but also how successfully the pupils mastered the material. For example, the elementary curriculum contains specific content in English and arithmetic. In many school systems, standardized tests in Eng-

⁷ *Instructional Guide "Life Science,"* Publication Number SC-565, Division of Instructional Services, Los Angeles City Schools, 1958, Foreword, p. iii.

lish and arithmetic are administered to pupils at the end of the sixth grade or early in the seventh grade. The curriculum content of seventh-grade English and arithmetic is articulated with what has preceded, and a modified program is provided for those who are not ready for regular seventh-grade work.

Articulation between lower schools and the senior high school

Whether the young person enters the senior high school directly from an eight-year elementary school or a three-year junior high school, both he and his high-school counselor are faced with deciding which curriculum he is to follow: academic, commercial, or general. The eight-year graduate supposedly has completed his fundamental learnings and is ready to continue his general education in such subjects as English, social studies, science, and mathematics, and to begin his specialization. The junior-high-school graduate has taken the subjects that are included in the first year of the four-year senior high school.

The curriculum adaptation in the senior high school of the eight-year elementary-school graduate differs from that of the junior-high-school graduate. The former is beginning his specialization in the school in which he will continue his chosen curriculum. The latter already has begun such subjects as foreign language, general science, and the first year's work in secondary mathematics. In either case, the senior-high-school teachers may find that the new pupils are not thoroughly grounded in the fundamentals and that much remedial work is needed. The teachers of four-year schools may not be as adept as junior-high-school teachers in coping with gaps in basic learnings. Hence these pupils often are placed in a modified curriculum which may retard their progress into advanced work. This is unfortunate for some young people who have the native ability to succeed but who, because of immaturity or insufficient articulation between the school levels, have not been prepared adequately in the lower school for the demands of the upper school.

Although it has been claimed that this situation can prevail whether pupils come to the senior high school directly from the elementary school or by way of the junior high school, it seems to be true that the perfection of basic skills often is achieved better in the first two years of the junior high school than in the

seventh and eighth grades of the eight-year school. Moreover, in some junior high schools beginning phases of ninth-year work are introduced in the eighth year, thereby acquainting the pupils with what lies ahead of them.

A different problem arises in the articulation of the junior and senior high school. Curriculum-makers in three-year senior high schools are faced with the problem of achieving articulation between their tenth-year curriculum and the ninth-grade curriculum of the junior high schools. In some school systems, especially large-city systems, the junior high schools and the senior high schools are under separate administrative personnel. Unless there is close co-operation between the two divisions, the purposes and content of the ninth-year curriculum can differ to the extent that junior-high-school graduates may be unprepared to meet the demands of the tenth-year curriculum, especially in foreign languages and mathematics. This situation has caused considerable friction between the two school levels. Some senior high schools have met the problem by administering to tenth-year entrants comprehensive tests covering ninth-year subject matter. Those young people who fail to reach the expected standard of performance are retarded from one-half to a full year. The curriculum personnel of many junior and senior high schools are co-operating in their curriculum planning in order to improve articulation between their schools.

Articulation between Secondary Schools and Colleges Plan-
ners of secondary-school curriculums face the problem of con-
structing college preparatory curriculums that will satisfy the
requirements of the junior and four-year colleges they will feed.
Since colleges exist for different purposes their requirements will
vary. However, the curriculum for the freshman year of most
junior and four-year colleges emphasizes general higher edu-
cation. The curriculum of the twelfth year of the secondary
school needs to be articulated with that of the college freshman
year. College and secondary-school personnel are co-operating
to achieve better working relations in matters such as college ad-
mission requirements and curriculum sequences.

College admission requirements Many years ago the rela-
tively small number of candidates made it comparatively easy

for each college to determine which students it would admit as freshmen, but changed social and economic conditions and increased interest in a college education have made the problem of selecting students for admission more difficult.

Colleges differ in their methods of admission. Many colleges use the results of uniform college entrance examinations conducted by the College Entrance Board, established in 1901. Some colleges admit on the bases of secondary-school average and recommendation by the school's principal or a combination of these with an examination.

Influences of colleges on the secondary-school curriculum
Most institutions of higher learning are exacting in their requirements for admission. The subjects pursued in secondary school often determine whether a candidate is eligible for admission to a particular college. The procedure for admission—by entrance examination, secondary-school average, or administrative recommendation—does not influence the subject requirements laid down by any given college. Each has its own rules and regulations related to secondary-school courses and their content.

Improved articulation between secondary schools and colleges
During the past two decades, there has been more communication between secondary schools and colleges. One reason for this probably is that when many of the service men and women of World War II who had not completed secondary school wanted to attend college arrangements were made by the schools and colleges for these adults to take an accelerated program and qualify for college entrance. Concern over the education of gifted young people also has brought about better articulation between secondary schools and colleges.

The Early Admissions Experiment of the Fund for the Advancement of Education has thrown some light on the problem of making schools and colleges more flexible and effective in developing the diversified abilities of young people. In the fall of 1951, eleven American colleges and universities accepted 420 freshmen who were about two years younger than the average college entrants and, in most cases, had not completed the regular high-school curriculum. A comparison of the academic

performance and personal adjustment in college of the experimental groups with those of regularly admitted students resulted in two general conclusions: (1) early admission is appropriate only for intellectually superior students, and (2) ability to do well in college is not solely a function of chronological age or twelve years of previous preparation.⁸

Current emphasis on ways of motivating gifted secondary-school students toward advanced study has resulted in the participation of more than 400 colleges in advanced credit programs permitting gifted students to enroll in college courses while still in secondary school. By way of illustration, four examples are cited.

At Columbia University, a student, while still in high school, may apply for up to 24 advanced credits. The number of such credits he will receive toward his degree is determined by his work during his freshman year and the scores made on the College Entrance Examination Board Advanced Placement Examinations.

During the school year 1959-60, the University of Pennsylvania inaugurated an experimental program whereby superior students of the Philadelphia high schools are permitted to take college-level courses while they complete their high-school studies. According to the plan, a limited number of pupils are admitted to the year-long program, some under tuition-free scholarships. They attend a regular course in the University's College of General Studies, following a normal schedule of lectures, tests, and examinations. Gifted young people thereby are given an early opportunity to become oriented to college work.

Dartmouth College has inaugurated a new plan whereby an entering student may receive advanced placement and reduction of course requirements, on recommendation of the subject departments concerned, for college-level work taken before graduation from high school. To qualify, these students must meet such criteria as special Dartmouth departmental examinations, acceptable high-school record, and score high on the advanced placement test and achievement tests of the College Entrance

⁸ See A. Larson, "The Early Admission Experiment of the Fund for the Advancement of Education," *The Educational Forum*, Vol. XXIII, No. 1, November, 1958, pp. 101-108.

Examination Board. To illustrate: if a student receives credit on entering Dartmouth for five or more one-term courses in three or more fields, such as history, mathematics, and chemistry, for example, he will be admitted to the sophomore class. Each case is evaluated on its individual merits, and proper consideration for advanced standing is given to the student.

A similar project has been started in North Central New Jersey through the co-operation of Fairleigh Dickinson University. During their senior year, gifted secondary-school students are permitted to complete at least three college credits per term at the University in addition to their regular secondary-school courses.

One of the schools co-operating in this project, the West Morris Regional High School, is conducting a program of early identification of the gifted. The Board of Education has given enthusiastic approval to a plan inaugurated by the principal, Dr. Leonard Saunders. Through the co-operation of the school's staff, the following activities are conducted for about 800 boys and girls.

1. Evaluation of each pupil's learning capacity and educational interests as determined by (a) the results of appropriate standardized tests, (b) objective measurement of academic achievement, (c) teacher evaluation, and (d) conferences with the pupil and his parents.
2. Flexible pupil scheduling according to expected level of performance in order to allow for needed or desirable course changes.

Expanded and enriched curriculum offerings are made available for the bright and gifted in preparation for their continued study on the college level. One such project is the scheduling of a small group of talented upper-class students (not more than 20) for a two-period per day core seminar to which well-known professional and business leaders are brought as guest lecturers. The students engage in extensive and intensive study according to individual learning interests. The main purpose of the seminar is to provide worthwhile educational enrichment and superior background preparation for continued study at Fairleigh Dickinson University or some other institution of higher learning.

Since effective student preparation for admission to a college

or entrance into gainful employment depends as much on good teaching as on a well-planned curriculum, the teachers of the West Morris Regional High School are encouraged to participate in programs of professional improvement. The teachers of college preparatory courses attend summer institutes so that they will be better fitted to articulate the content of their subjects with college-level content. Too, opportunities are found by the administrative staff of the school for the teachers of the skill subjects to gain practical experience in their fields through summer employment in industry or business. The Bell Laboratory, for example, co-operates closely with the school.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Assume that the secondary school in which you teach is surveying the community it serves. What items of information about the families in the community will be of value in developing the curriculum of the school?
2. What facts about the pupils now attending a particular secondary school are essential to the work of its curriculum committees?
3. What means may be used to acquaint parents with proposed curriculum changes?
4. What curriculum changes should be made to meet the needs of slow, average, and rapid learners? To what extent can the three groups learn together?
5. Evaluate critically the curriculum offerings and graduation requirements of the senior high school you attended.
6. To what extent should secondary-school pupils be permitted to elect the subjects they study?
7. What kinds of help would you expect a curriculum guide in your subject to provide?
8. If the curriculum guide in your subject offered many more ideas for class activities than you could use with one class, on what bases would you make your selections? What share would you want the pupils to have in the decisions?
9. Assume that you meet the same pupils in an extended consecutive period daily for English and Social Studies. At what points would you attempt to make use of activities or ideas in one field to reinforce the other?
10. Explain the meaning of "articulation between school levels."
11. Select a secondary-school subject area. Indicate how its content

can be articulated with lower-school curriculum offerings and the freshman year in a junior or four-year college.

12. Why is there some friction between junior high schools and senior high schools about the ninth-year curriculum?
13. Discuss any problems of curriculum articulation you have experienced in your schooling.
14. What do you consider the advantages and disadvantages of early admission to college or parallel study on the secondary-school and college levels? Be specific.

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The Curriculum—Learning Sequences

Most secondary schools organize their curriculums by subject fields or use subject content for resource material in learning areas. Since the pupil's experience is not divided into compartments and research has shown that best learning probably takes place by wholes rather than by separate parts, every effort needs to be made to search out, recognize, and utilize relationships among the subjects which form the secondary-school curriculum.

Recognizing the internal relationships among the various components of a single field is especially important. For example, the pupil should clearly understand the essential relationships of speaking and listening in the language arts, of historical trends and standards of citizenship in social studies, and of life processes and the operation of physical laws in science.

A further consideration, without which the best curriculum plans are of little worth, is the need for the content of instruction to be related to the pupil's experience. Here the greatest changes in curriculum and classroom methods have taken place in the recent past; here the greatest promise for the future lies.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

When a relatively homogeneous group of pupils attended the high schools in the early years of this century, the content of the English curriculum reflected that homogeneity. A body of literature with which all educated people should be acquainted, speech patterns suited to all social situations, and written composition which conformed to strict rules—these made up the content of English.

Now that a high percentage of all the nation's teen-age pupils

are attending the secondary school, the problem of the English curriculum is greatly complicated. Within the present secondary population can be found many levels of language usage, and of reading, speaking, listening, and writing skill.

Variations in Reading Ability Great differences in achievement on any grade level are revealed by standardized tests. A *Reading Comprehension Test* (Grades 4-9) prepared by two of the authors was administered to all seventh-grade pupils in the three junior high schools of Valley Stream, N.Y. The results illustrate the variations in reading ability within the same grade: although the pupils as a whole slightly exceeded the national average for the grade, the range in reading comprehension extended from the top of the third grade to near the completion of the eleventh grade. In some other school communities throughout the United States, especially in areas having a large influx of the foreign born, some children enter the seventh year of school with third-grade reading equivalents or lower, while others have superior reading ability.

Some schools attempt to meet the problems posed by these wide variations in ability and performance by grouping pupils according to academic ability. In the junior high school, this often is done on the basis of combined reading scores, intelligence quotients, and teachers' recommendations. Adjustments in materials of instruction still must be made for remaining differences in these groups. Schools which schedule pupils of all abilities in the same group must make further adaptations to the differing levels of ability in the same class. In the senior high schools, ability grouping may be used in the required English classes.

Goals An extensive study of the teaching of English has been conducted by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. Volume III of that study, "The English Language Arts in the Secondary School," provides a wealth of resource material for teachers who have curriculum responsibilities or who wish to strengthen their own teaching of English.

The broadened scope of English teaching is shown by the Commission's recognition of three general goals:

1. Cultivation of wholesome personal living.
2. Development of social sensitivity and effective participation in group life.
3. Linguistic competence necessary for vocational efficiency.¹

Each of these goals is analyzed in the Commission's report. The further development of basic skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking is emphasized, and the growth of personal qualities and abilities through those activities is stressed. Understanding the present in relation to the past, appreciating other people, controlling one's prejudices, and learning to respect the value of American life and culture and the culture of other nations are listed as significant objectives.

A close relationship should exist between the English curriculum and the needs and interests of secondary-school students. The school should be concerned with helping young people to (1) master language adequately for daily life activities, (2) understand the role of communication in effective living, (3) find satisfaction in literature, and (4) utilize the various media to explore their reactions to others and to understand better their own ideas and emotions.

The English Program The curriculum in English varies from district to district but shows similarities in general content. These resemblances are clearly seen in the national study conducted by Arno Jewett, of the Office of Education.² Jewett found that junior-high-school courses of study in English contain many "resource units which are literature-centered, composition-centered, speech-centered, listening-centered, and grammar-centered." The seventh-grade units are built around the typical interests of boys and girls twelve and thirteen years old, including outdoor life, adventure, mystery, and science. The

¹ The Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English, *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*, Copyright © 1956, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, pp. 44-45.

² Jewett, Arno, *English Language Arts in American High Schools*, Bulletin 1958, No. 13, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1959.

eighth-grade material and activities are closely related in many schools to the American history studies of the same grade. For the ninth grade, the study revealed emphasis on personal growth and social relationships. Problems of family and community living also are studied. Written composition, oral communication, and listening are stressed.

Of the senior-high-school curriculum, Jewett observes that "after examining the courses of study for grades 10, 11, and 12, one may safely conclude that a much more traditional type of program prevails in the senior high than in the junior high years." The study shows that *Julius Caesar* still is the classic most often suggested for use in grade 10, closely followed by *Silas Marner* and *A Tale of Two Cities*. American literature is most frequently studied in grade 11, with considerable variation in the organization of the units which constitute the year's work. Finally, the diversity of the twelfth year is in sharp contrast to the degree of uniformity in the previous grades. The course in English literature, formerly required for most pupils, now is offered generally as an elective or as a college-entrance requirement.

Developmental Reading Instruction The comment "When they come to us, they are supposed to be able to read," is heard less frequently as secondary-school teachers realize that the teaching of reading is a developmental process which extends well into the adolescent years. Teachers have come to realize that new types of reading material and new uses for reading require additional techniques, built on the previous learnings; and that new vocabularies, as in science and in technical subjects, must be mastered. Teachers realize, too, that some slower readers in junior high school have not yet reached the point attained by others in the elementary grades and need continued reading instruction.

Since problems in reading and in other language skills tend to affect achievement in other subjects, every teacher in the school becomes, in a sense, a teacher of English. Patterns in reading, writing, speaking, and listening, practiced in the English class, need to be reinforced by their use as tools in the other activities of the school.

Adjustment to Individual Differences As can be expected, the pupils in most secondary schools need to be grouped according to their reading level roughly into three categories: slow readers, normal or adequate readers, and pupils having superior or practically adult reading skill. Normal readers usually manage to obtain sufficient thought from the printed page to enable them to meet the demands of content study. Problems are encountered, however, in adjusting learning materials to the meager capabilities of the slow learner and in supplying talented learners with challenging reading materials.

Provision for the slow reader Much thinking has been directed toward helping slow readers in the secondary school. In an increasing number of school systems a pupil is considered a slow learner if he is retarded by at least two years as determined by a reliable reading test, such as the *Stanford Achievement Test in Reading*, the *Metropolitan Reading Test*, *Gray's Oral Reading Test*, and the *Crow-Kuhlmann-Crow Reading Comprehension Test*.

Reading clinics, conducted on an individual basis, are becoming increasingly popular. Some junior high schools have organized corrective reading classes, limited to no more than fifteen pupils. Admission to these classes usually is on the basis of an intelligence quotient of 85 to 90 and a reading grade that is about two-and-one-half years retarded. The members of these classes, in addition to their regular studies, spend at least two extra hours per week in group remedial reading therapy. Moreover, some junior high schools require that a pupil have a reading grade of 7.0 at the end of the ninth grade to receive a diploma. Those ninth-year pupils whose reading level is equivalent to that of the fifth or sixth grade are granted a certificate if they are otherwise qualified for graduation, and they are advised to elect the general course in the senior high school.

Another problem encountered by secondary-school people is supplying slow readers with textbooks and other materials that are within their range of comprehension. Finding literature written in a simple style that will satisfy the reading interests of relatively sophisticated adolescents is a difficult task. Some progress has been made, especially in general science and social stud-

ies. In English classes, Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare* can be used. Basal readers have been prepared for the secondary-school slow reader, and some schools use the *Weekly Reader*, a miniature newspaper with many pictures.³

Some techniques employed with slow readers follow in effect a proposal made by Conant.

Those in the ninth grade of the school who read at a level of the sixth grade or below should be given special consideration. These pupils should be instructed in English and the required social studies by special teachers who are interested in working with such students and who are sympathetic to their problems. Remedial reading should be part of the work, and special types of textbooks should be provided. The elective programs of these pupils should be directed toward simple vocational work, and they should be kept out of the regular vocational programs for boys, the distributive education program, and the regular commercial program for girls. These students should not be confused with mentally retarded students. The education of the mentally retarded is a special problem which in some states is also handled in the regular high school through special instruction and the use of special state funds.⁴

According to Carl F. Brown and Richard Walser, who have prepared a guide to curriculum study in English language arts for the State Board of Education of North Carolina, reading is a serious problem. They say the following about remedial reading:

This problem is so vast that only its generalities can be mentioned here. But one thing is sure: the more effective the developmental program, the less need for a remedial one. Actually, it is possible for most language deficiencies to be corrected in the regular classroom, only the complex disabilities needing clinical help from experts.

There is no simple answer to the question of why we have a remedial reading problem. Yet the fact remains that 5% to 10% of students are retarded. Since poor vision and hearing are generally blamed, it is surmised that the difficulties of the poor reader can be prevented or corrected. Sometimes other factors are at work: low

³ Consult American Education Publications, 1250 Fairwood Avenue, Columbus 16, Ohio.

⁴ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1959, p. 55. Quoted with permission of the author. Full report available from the publisher.

intelligence, poor diet, ineffectual instruction, and psychological problems. If home conditions are at fault, the teacher must offset them by attractive books and an atmosphere of acceptance and affection.

In a junior high school where remedies are not possible within the regular classroom, it is advisable to set up more than one hour for the language arts disciplines. This is a notion which needs more research than has been given it.

In senior high school, it is often necessary to establish Practical English courses in the 12th grade for those having difficulty with one or more phases of English. In it, a student gets at least one day per week for improving his rate and comprehension of reading, in addition to constant repetition of spelling words and the like.

But within the classroom, a remedial program can be effective if it is individualized. For instance, a student must be encouraged to select his own books based on his own interests. And more than ever in a remedial class, the teacher must motivate the reading by giving students something to look for.⁵

Some mentally superior young people reveal reading blocks, the reasons for which are not fully understood. The cause may be inadequate instruction in the elementary school, unfortunate previous experience with reading, or too great concern with activities in which reading need is minimal. Excessive television viewing or involvement in sports or social activity limit the time and energy that could be devoted to reading for personal pleasure. Some secondary schools are developing programs, termed variously *talent search*, *wider horizons*, *potentiaity development*, and the like, the purpose of which is to challenge young people of superior intellect to become interested in developing their latent potentialities.

Provision for the superior reader The superior secondary-school reader should have available a rich program of diversified offerings. Many challenging courses in secondary-school English have been evolved to meet the learning needs of gifted pupils.

It is the policy of most secondary schools to require fundamental courses to be taken each year in reading, oral and written composition, and grammar and speech. In some schools, speech is offered as a separate course. Whatever the organization

⁵ Carl F. Brown and Richard Walser, *A Guide to Curriculum Study*, State Board of Education, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1959, pp. 43-44.

of the English program may be, it is possible to alter it to meet the needs of talented pupils, especially if homogeneous grouping is employed. In an increasing number of schools, the talented pupils are permitted to substitute a special course for the regular one or elect extra work in English. Among the special offerings can be included the following:

American literature	College-preparatory English
Current literature	Debate
World literature	Dramatic art
The Bible	Journalism
Advanced composition	Radio speaking and broadcasting
Creative writing	English workshop in special subjects

The Osborne Schools of Phoenix, Arizona, have prepared a bulletin on an enrichment program in language arts for grades 6, 7, and 8. The suggested program is introduced by the statements of policy to be followed by English teachers in their approach to the needs of academically talented pupils. Some of the most pertinent statements are presented here.

The heart of any program to educate the gifted children lies in *enrichment*, which is the process of tailor fitting the curriculum to the needs, interests and abilities of the gifted pupil and of adding more variety and complexity to his assignments. . . .

A distinction should be made between *enrichment* and classroom enrichment. Many educators use the term "classroom enrichment" to mean an administrative arrangement of helping the gifted child *within* the regular classroom rather than by acceleration or ability grouping.

Enrichment, however, is not an administrative arrangement. It is a teaching procedure—the educational process for stimulating intellectually gifted children with or without use of administrative arrangements, and of course, the latter, without enrichment, is of little value to the gifted child.

None of these administrative devices, however, will truly serve the gifted child unless you, the teacher, make it serve. What goes on between you and your pupils is the heart of any program for gifted children. The administrator's actions can only aid and support your efforts.

Gifted children need drill on fundamental processes in order to

master them, but they need much less time than do other children. . . .

In working with the gifted children both as individuals and in groups, teachers have found considerable value in teaching them how-to-do-it steps. You can teach, review, and discuss these steps until each child knows specifically how to proceed and evaluate his own process. These steps fall into four comparatively distinct processes, individual research, reporting on individual research, learning by listening to reports of others and evaluating any of the first three activities.⁶

Drill in English Since the study of English should be a pleasurable experience, some educators decry the use of any drill. It is true that literature should be studied for appreciation and enjoyment. Some amount of intelligently conducted drill is needed, however, for pupils to master the fine points of oral and written communication. Practice helps them gain skill in enunciation, pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, and oral expression. Some secondary schools judge drill needs on the basis of the results of reliable diagnostic tests, such as the Rinsland-Beck National Test of English Usage, Nelson Tests of Reading Comprehension, the Pressy Diagnostic Tests in English Composition, and similar testing instruments.

Community resources The English teacher can draw on community resources for a wealth of material applicable to his work. The daily newspaper, of course, is a source of current reading material; visits to printing shops and news and editorial offices are helpful also. Attending theaters and motion picture houses, as well as visiting backstage and observing motion picture production, are intriguing experiences, especially for superior pupils.

Other interesting community resources are radio stations where the production of programs can be viewed and local industries where pertinent information can be obtained for oral English reports. The public library gives adolescents an opportunity to engage in desired reading and offers other advantages,

⁶ *Language Arts, Enrichment Program for Grades 6, 7 and 8*, Osborn Schools, Department of Instruction and Guidance, Phoenix, Arizona, 1959, pp. 1 and 4.

such as becoming acquainted with good magazines and journals, as well as book displays and reviews.

SOCIAL STUDIES

The social studies provide a good example of a broad-fields study. Local and state history, the history of the United States and of other nations, both ancient and modern, provide a background for understanding the present. Functions of government and the rights and duties of citizens are considered. Various courses based on geography as it relates to human life, on economics, and on sociology are included in the offerings. Throughout, a constant theme of the relationship of the individual to his environment is maintained.

Needless to say, the dramatic changes in American society and the issues of recent years pose problems for the teacher of social studies. Among these issues are the impact upon life of transportation and the media of communication, the struggle between differing ideologies for power, and the proper role of nationalism in the total international situation. Current issues can be understood and dealt with as we train young minds to be alert to what is happening in society and to discover ways of reacting to change.

Goals Certain basic understandings about the United States are expected to be achieved in American History courses. These are stated by the Portland, Oregon schools as follows:

The growth and development of our country lies not in one thing alone but is the result of an amalgamation of dreams, ideas, natural resources, labor, and capital.

The future growth and development of our country depends upon the application of what has been learned, what is now being learned and what will be learned by those who will be the leaders tomorrow.

Continuing growth of any democratic nation is dependent upon the degree to which its subjects or citizens are permitted to participate, for growth is a gradual, natural process of the expression of its people.

Our culture is a blending of contributions from many peoples and cultures.

Understanding the geography and history of our country tends to increase our appreciation of our heritage.

Thoughtful planning and legislation must be used to extend the use of our natural resources for the sake of future generations.

People can learn to live comfortably together despite differences of opinion.

Research is responsible for finding ways to improve conditions here and abroad.

Participation in government is an obligation as well as a privilege.

Adequate regular employment for a people contributes to growth and development.

Tourist attractions have economic value to a region.

Educational and cultural institutions attract people to an area.

Man has many unsolved problems in various fields of science—ways to feed the people of the world, how to put atomic power to useful peace projects, etc.

The way man lives; his occupation, shelter, clothes, and leisure activities are determined to a great extent by his physical environment.⁷

After World War II, school people throughout the country were especially concerned about world conditions and felt that secondary-school pupils should be made aware of them. Toward this end, the Department of Public Instruction of Iowa sponsored the construction of the following social studies curriculum.

AN OUTLINE OF THE PROPOSED COURSE OF STUDY

The proposals for grades nine through twelve are grouped into two large "blocks"; within these blocks the two consecutive courses are inherently related and progressive in nature. At the same time, each course can and does stand on its own merits.

The first block for grades nine and ten focuses the attention of the student on the world outside the United States. In the second block for grades eleven and twelve, the emphasis is placed upon the American scene and upon America as one of the great powers among the nations. The following is the outline of the four-year program as proposed by the committee:

⁷ "How Did Our Country Grow and Develop," Curriculum Publication, RU-45, Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon, 1958, pp. 2-3.

Grade Nine: The Development of World Civilization

- Unit I: Man's place in Time and Space
- Unit II: Man's Struggle to Improve His Living Conditions Throughout the Ages
- Unit III: How Man Has Been Governed Throughout the Ages
- Unit IV: Man's Search for Religion Throughout the Ages
- Unit V: How Man Has Expressed His Ideas Throughout the Ages
- Unit VI: World Resources

Grade Ten: The World Community

- Unit I: The Need for Peace
- Unit II: The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
- Unit III: The British Empire
- Unit IV: The Far East
- Unit V: Modern France
- Unit VI: Modern Germany
- Unit VII: Modern Italy
- Unit VIII: Norway, Denmark, and Sweden
- Unit IX: Latin America

Grade Eleven: The Development of American Civilization

- Unit I: How Did the Colonists Build the Foundations of Our Democracy?
- Unit II: How Has the American Constitution Served as a Framework for Our Form of Federal Government?
- Unit III: How Did the Expansion to the Mississippi Influence the Development of Our Democracy?
- Unit IV: How Did Our Nation Meet Sectional Conflict and Problems of Reconstruction?
- Unit V: How Did the Expansion of Industry and Agriculture Affect Our Way of Life?
- Unit VI: How Did Government Control and Reform Develop in America?
- Unit VII: How Did the United States Seek "Normalcy" Following World War I?
- Unit VIII: How Did Government Attempt to Conquer the Depression?
- Unit IX: How Shall the United States Help Build for Peace?

Grade Twelve: Contemporary Problems

Part A Problems of a High School Senior (3-4 weeks)

Unit I: Analyzing Personal Problems

Unit II: Solving Problems

Part B Social Problems in a Democratic Society (6-8 weeks)

Unit III: Our Changing Population and What it Means

Unit IV: Housing Problems

Unit V: Preparing for Marriage and Parenthood

Part C Economic Problems in a Democratic Society (6-8 weeks)

Unit VI: Economic Trends in a Democracy

Unit VII: The National Income

Unit VIII: Taxation

Unit IX: Problems in Personal Finances

Part D Political Problems in a Democratic Society (6-8 weeks)

Unit X: Citizenship in a Democracy

Unit XI: The Importance of Elections

Unit XII: Participation in Local Government

Unit XIII: Your Stake in State and National Administration

Unit XIV: Laws and a Just Enforcement of Laws

Part E

Unit XV: Living in the Era of Atomic Energy

Part F

Unit XVI: The High School Graduate Enters a New World⁸

Theory and practice It is apparent that such desirable goals as democratic relationships with other pupils, standards of behavior and citizenship, home and family living, and vocational information are not social studies goals alone. Unless the entire school day gives opportunities for the development and practice of worthy citizenship in a democratic atmosphere, talking about citizenship in the social studies class will hardly achieve its full objective.

School people will do well to recognize that some of these goals are responsibilities shared with youth-serving agencies in the community. Joint operation of school and municipal summer playgrounds is but one example of increased effectiveness

⁸ Jessie M. Parker, "The Development of World Civilization; The World Community," Iowa Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum, Vol. XVI. Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa, 1950, pp. 8-10.

through co-operation among community agencies with resulting reduction in duplication of effort.

Sources of Present Patterns Shortly before 1900, one committee appointed by the National Education Association and another representing the American Historical Association, both composed largely of historians and political scientists, made recommendations regarding the teaching of history, geography, and government. It was not until 1916, however, that the basic pattern of the social studies, which still influences the present program, was outlined. In that year, the Committee on the Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, N.E.A., made its report.

A three-cycle plan of American-history teaching, given once in the elementary grades, repeated in what is now the junior high school, and once again in the senior high school, was recommended. A two-year offering of geography also was recommended for the upper elementary grades.⁹

Sequence of Content The three cycles of history have been adjusted to avoid unnecessary repetition. The elementary study usually involves old-world backgrounds and takes the American story through discovery and exploration, colonization, and the winning of independence.

The social studies curriculum in the junior high school completes the history cycles begun in the elementary school and frequently adds civics in the ninth grade. World history is now a year course and is offered by many schools in the tenth grade. American history, usually placed in the eleventh grade, is almost uniformly required, frequently by state law. Courses under a variety of names, using some adaptation of the problems of democracy theme, are offered in the twelfth grade. Sociology, economics, and geography are found in many school programs.

Provision for Differing Learning Abilities The problem posed by the provision and the adjustment of classroom materials to the varying abilities of pupils is as acute in social studies as it

⁹ See *Curriculum Planning in American Schools: The Social Studies*, A Draft Report from the Commission on the Social Studies of the National Council for the Social Studies, November, 1958, p. 19.

is in the English language arts. The differing learning needs of many pupils are involved, since the social studies are generally required of all pupils through the junior high school and during at least two of the three years in senior high school.

In planning for the social studies experiences of the academically talented such considerations as these should be kept in mind:

1. All the individual skills and techniques taught in any social studies classes need to be mastered by the academically talented pupils as well as by the less able. This includes the further development of reading, writing, and spelling related to this field.
2. Social studies provide many opportunities for bright pupils to plan with the teacher the details of class activities within the general curriculum framework.
3. Pupil committees can find many significant problems to study and to report on to the rest of the group.
4. Individual reports and panel discussions should provide the academically talented with frequent experience in speaking before groups.
5. Class activities for the academically talented can lead to larger school responsibilities in which these pupils may work with pupils of all ranges of ability.
6. These students should make intensive use of the library and reference materials.
7. Development of a sense of responsibility for the use of their greater ability in the service of all the pupils will go a long way toward preventing a sense of separation from the rest of the school.

Careful adjustment in the teaching materials for retarded learners also must be provided if these pupils are to make the best use of their limited abilities at once and later as voting citizens. A constant search must be carried on for texts written on a lower reading level which will be acceptable to secondary pupils. Much use needs to be made of charts and other visual materials, including films and filmstrips, which do not rely exclusively on reading ability. Many community resources can be discovered which will provide for these pupils understandings not readily gained through reading alone.

Evaluation Social studies is concerned not only with subject-matter mastery but also with the development of proper attitudes that are revealed in social behavior. The extent to which the students have mastered the subject matter can be measured by good teacher-made tests or carefully selected standardized tests. It is not so easy to utilize tests for the measurement of social maturity. The judgment of the teacher and the use of interest and attitude tests as well as opinion polls are helpful, however. Self-rating personality tests, such as the *Thurstone Personality Schedule* or the *Bernreuter Personality Scale*, help give insight into the attitudes and citizenship maturity of the individuals.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The changes in the secondary-school population in the past few decades were accompanied by a gradual reduction in the percentage of enrollments in foreign languages. More pupils who planned to seek immediate employment after high school continued longer in school. Many of these pupils saw no immediate value in the study of languages; others lacked the academic ability to succeed in language classes in which grammar and translation were the principal activities.

As a result of curtailed enrollments, advanced classes became more difficult to maintain. A two-year sequence became the maximum for many secondary schools and, with a few outstanding exceptions, translation was the primary aim of language teaching.

In recent years an increased interest in foreign languages has developed. The current awareness of the importance of foreign-language instruction in secondary education and the increased interest of teachers and pupils stem from at least two sources: the responsibility for leadership in international relations now carried by the United States, and the change taking place in classroom methods of teaching modern foreign languages.

Trends in Foreign Language Instruction The pattern of teaching the modern foreign languages which is gaining ground in secondary schools is referred to as the functional (or oral-

aural) approach. The traditional order is reversed; hearing and speaking replace grammar and translation as initial steps in learning the language.

The principles upon which such a program may be built have been stated by the Modern Language Association of America and summarized by Marjorie C. Johnston and John R. Ludington, as follows:

1. The elementary language course, at whatever level, should concentrate at the beginning upon the learner's *hearing* and *speaking* the foreign tongue. Throughout later stages, the student should have considerable practice in maintaining his hearing and speaking skills.
2. Learning to *read* a foreign language, the third phase of the hearing-speaking-reading progression in the acquiring of language skills, should aim at the ability to grasp the meaning directly, without translating. Translation, to be used only in rare instances as a device for teaching reading, comes later as a meaningful literary or linguistic exercise.
3. *Writing* is the fourth stage in the early acquirement of language skills. The student should write only what he can already say correctly. Topics should be so defined as to enable him to make maximum use of the vocabulary and speech patterns he has acquired.
4. In addition to the progressive acquisition of a set of *skills*, providing a new medium of communication, the study of a foreign language should be a progressive *experience*, enlarging the learner's horizon through the introduction of a new culture.
5. Along with an expanding knowledge of foreign people and, as a consequence, a better understanding of American culture, the student of a foreign language should gain awareness of the nature of language and a new perspective on English.
6. At any point, the progress made in language should have positive value and lay the foundation upon which further progress can be built, but students should be able to continue the study *long enough to make real proficiency possible*. Continuity from the elementary school through the high school is desirable.¹⁰

¹⁰ Marjorie C. Johnston and John R. Ludington, "Post-Conference Reflections," in Johnston, Marjorie C., ed., *Modern Foreign Languages in the High School*, Bulletin 1958, No. 16, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1958, pp. 157-158.

Foreign Languages for the Academically Talented Both the report of the NEA Conference, "The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented in the American Secondary School," February, 1958, and the Conant Report stress the value of the study of foreign language for pupils of superior ability. In both reports, a four-year sequence in which a pupil may approach mastery of the language is recommended.

Federal legislation Under Title III of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, funds are provided, on a matching basis, for equipment and increased supervisory service by state educational agencies. Audio-visual materials and equipment, as well as printed materials other than textbooks, are included in the provisions of this legislation.

Title VI of the Act is concerned with language development through (a) the establishment of centers for research and studies, and (b) language institutes for teachers and supervisors of foreign languages.¹¹

Although federal assistance is directed toward language teaching and study on the secondary level, many school people are interested in starting the teaching of a foreign language at the elementary level. Experimental projects are under way in many states. Most large cities are offering one or more foreign languages in selected elementary schools. Some are experimenting at the first-grade level, others in various higher grades. A noteworthy attempt at the elementary school level is under way at Hackensack, New Jersey.

MUSIC

Music is one of our common heritages. It draws people together; it affords an outlet for emotion; it inspires; it relaxes; it brings beauty into life. For these reasons, music should have an appropriate place in a school's program of studies. Art also is a part of life. It is all about us; indeed, it is so much with us that we do not fully appreciate the effect it has on our lives.

¹¹ See Theodora E. Carlson, assisted by Catherine P. Williams, *Guide to the National Defense Education Act of 1958*, Circular No. 553. United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1959, pp. 7-10.

Today the children of America have an unparalleled opportunity to share in the enjoyment and appreciation of the musical and artistic resources of both the present and the past. This privilege has resulted largely from the development of radio and television, the increased production of recordings, and the growth of fine symphony orchestras and choral groups. Art reproductions of high quality in some of the national magazines, and the originals in the increasing number of art museums have enriched modern life. Active participation in music and art activities has provided many pupils with first-hand appreciation and satisfaction. For a limited number, it has made possible the development of their own creative skill.

Purposes of Music Education A committee sponsored by the Music Educators' National Conference prepared a reference handbook in music education for publication in the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. In response to the question "What are the purposes of music education in the secondary schools?" the committee said:

1. To disseminate the cultural aspects of music as an art, with emphasis on aesthetic values that will enable pupils to recognize and appreciate music of true beauty and greatness.
2. To help pupils develop understanding of other people through acquaintance with their music.
3. To develop in each child knowledge and appreciation of, as well as skill in, music.
4. To educate children in the use and worth of music in the home, church, and community.
5. To encourage its use as a means of recreation, as an avocation or a hobby.
6. To encourage and prepare for its use as a means of relaxation and release from the tensions of everyday living.
7. To identify the child gifted in music and guide his development so that his talent may be fully shared with society.
8. To use it as a means of developing social relationships, desirable conduct, feelings of responsibility, and group co-operation.¹²

¹² Adapted from "Music—A Vital Force in Today's Secondary Schools," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Volume 43, Number 245, March, 1959. The Association, Washington, D.C., 1959, pp. 5-6.

Programs in Music There is increasing evidence that the schools are accepting the responsibility of providing adequate educational opportunities in music. Some of the more recently inaugurated practices are these:

1. The provision of relatively small rooms for classes in music appreciation and studios for other music classes. These are soundproof and, if possible, located far away from other classrooms.
2. The courses of study in music appreciation are adapted to the interests of young people. Less time is devoted to biographical descriptions of the great composers and more attention is directed toward an intelligent appreciation of beauty in music. The radio, the tape recorder, and other audio aids are employed to motivate interested, intelligent listening.
3. Choral groups, glee clubs, orchestras, and school bands provide for the participation in group musical activities of those who are interested even though they may not show exceptional talent. In many schools there are junior musical groups from which young people who are especially interested or talented may go on into the senior groups. The school presents musical programs for the citizens of the community and may participate in community-sponsored programs.
4. All pupils are encouraged to participate in assembly programs and other forms of musical entertainment. Musical selections for these programs may include folk songs and popular selections that have artistic merit.
5. In literature, social studies, and foreign-language classes, pertinent musical selections are presented by way of recordings or performance by the students themselves.

Some forty years ago, one of the authors was a member of the first boys' glee club in his secondary school. The group met daily at 7:30 A.M.; tardiness was a serious offense. There was no credit toward graduation. The director of the club taught a regular program of six Latin classes daily in addition to this extra activity.

Today, not one but several full-time music teachers are employed in larger schools, and music is part of the regular secondary-school curriculum. All pupils in the seventh and eighth grades are customarily assigned to music selections two periods

a week. This general music class builds on the skills and the understandings developed in the elementary schools. Singing, listening to recorded music and visiting artists, and reading about music and musicians are some of the activities.

Instrumental music in the junior high school consists of instruction for small sections in strings, woodwinds, and brass and percussion instruments. From these small groups, a junior-high-school band and orchestra are formed.

Choral groups in the senior high school may attain considerable mastery of a fairly wide range of musical literature. Similarly, the senior-high-school orchestra and band explore musical compositions on the level of their more mature accomplishment. Small ensembles in both vocal and instrumental music are formed as interest and talent warrant.

Wider musical experiences One device for broadening the experiences of the pupils in secondary-school musical groups is the vocal or instrumental music festival, where choral and instrumental groups from various schools act alternately as performers and audience. Judges evaluate the various groups, but competition is reduced to a minimum.

Communities fortunate enough to have resident symphony orchestras make full use of this resource through series of children's concerts at school rates. Before the concerts students are taught the rules of proper behavior at a concert and are given some indication of the kind of music to expect.

THE FINE ARTS

The purposes of art education in the schools closely parallel those of music. Articulation of the secondary-school activities with the earlier elementary-school art experiences is essential. Increasing independence and originality are stressed and individual expression is encouraged.

Most young people like to "doodle," and many possess the ability to express their ideas on paper or canvas. The modern trend to encourage pupil activity and integrated learning offers young people many opportunities for artistic expression. Posters, school magazines and newspapers, special-project reports, school

and classroom decoration—these and many more serve as media of artistic expression.

Curriculums in the fine arts, while not neglecting the fundamentals, are placing new emphasis on the application of artistic principles to everyday life in such areas as home decoration and dress. The specially talented also are being discovered and given opportunities to develop their abilities and interests. Colleges and other institutions of learning as well as parents soon may recognize that a major in art is just as respectable as a major in science, mathematics, or any other subject.

Seventh- and eighth-grade pupils ordinarily are assigned to required art classes either for two or three periods a week throughout the two years or daily in alternate semesters; usually art is an elective in later grades. Exploration of the pupil's ability, the building of skills, and appreciation of art on the pupil's level of development are stressed. Anyone who has seen regional scholastic art exhibits is amazed at the excellence of the art and crafts displayed.

Broadened Art Experience Museums of art in the large communities are invaluable resources for wider experiences in art. School buses parked daily beside the museums attest to the use being made of this community facility. Increased value from the trip is gained by careful preparation of the groups before they visit the museum and by evaluation after the trip has been made. The classroom teacher and the museum instructor confer in advance to make sure that the material seen and discussed at the museum will reinforce the classroom teaching that precedes and follows the visit.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. If you were teaching a seventh-grade English class in which there were pupils of widely varying reading ability, how would you organize the class for developmental reading instruction?
2. Your school has a tape recorder. How would you use it in teaching oral expression in your class?
3. As a member of a textbook committee, what criteria would you use in the selection of a literature anthology for the ninth grade?

4. Your tenth-grade English class is scheduled to hear an L-P record of excerpts from *Julius Caesar* by a well-known actor. How will you prepare the class for that experience?
5. Describe situations in which acceptable patterns of adolescent conduct might be taught through interpretations of literature. Suggest several titles for this purpose in the American literature class.
6. To what extent has the legislature of your home state specified which social studies must be taught in the secondary schools of the state?
7. Under what authority may a state legislature stipulate subjects to be taught in the schools?
8. How would you help a retarded reader improve his reading skills through the use of social studies material?
9. Several pupils in your social studies class have a tendency to express strong opinions only remotely related to the facts of the situation under discussion. What would you do?
10. Some educators feel that courses in social studies should be progressive rather than repetitive as in the three-cycle plan. Do you agree? Why or why not?
11. You have been selected chairman of the curriculum committee for the Problems of Democracy course. There are seven members, including six classroom teachers and an assistant principal. A supervisor acts as consultant. The committee assignment is the preparation of resource units. What would you do at the first meeting of the committee?
12. A meeting of the social studies teachers in the junior high school is called to make preparations for a student assembly program. What ideas would you contribute?
13. How should American history be taught in secondary schools so that it will function as education for citizenship?
14. Under what circumstance would you advise a pupil to study four years of Latin in high school?
15. Study illustrations of equipment in current professional magazines and describe a modern foreign-language laboratory.
16. Contrast the teaching methods you would see in a foreign-language class stressing grammar and translation with those of a class committed to the oral-aural approach.
17. What specific contributions to the general education of secondary-school pupils would you expect from the study of foreign languages?
18. What conditions should the school set up for participation of the

high-school band in community parades and other non-school events?

- As chairman of the assembly committee, what would you propose for music in the assembly programs?
- The *a capella* choir has asked the school for choir robes. Whose job is it to raise the money?
- Some seventh-grade boys profess to dislike vocal music. Should they be excused from music class?

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The Curriculum—Learning Sequences (Continued)

SCIENCE

Current explorations of outer space dramatize the rapid advances of science in man's attempt to understand and control his environment. The anticipated increase in our need for scientists and mathematicians has resulted in proposals designed to provide a greater supply of scientifically trained personnel for industrial and government research. The urgency with which these proposals have been presented poses a problem of curriculum balance for the secondary schools.

The Rockefeller Report makes this comment on the problem of keeping a balanced curriculum while at the same time meeting the pressing demands of present-day conditions:

... just as we must insist that every scientist be broadly educated, so we must see to it that every educated person be literate in science. In the short run this may contribute to our survival. In the long run it is essential to our integrity as a society.

... This bears also upon the balance in education between the sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Each has a vital part to play and any policy which fails to nourish and strengthen all is shortsighted indeed.¹

Science and the Modern Secondary School In the past, although the importance of science was recognized by most school

¹ From: *The Pursuit of Excellence—Education And The Future of America*, p. 28. Copyright © 1958 Rockefeller Brothers Fund, Inc. Reprinted by permission of Doubleday & Company, Inc.

people, the sciences had to fight for their rightful place in the program of studies. Certain science courses were not offered, or students did not take them unless they were required to do so. There was difficulty also with the way in which the subject matter was presented. Some teachers seemed to be more concerned with teaching facts than with developing ideas. Modern educators realize that science should be taught, not as a catalogue of facts and figures, but as an interesting story of the world and the people in it, and that world survival depends in great part on all peoples' ability to understand natural phenomena and to control their functioning for the general welfare.

The study of science should

1. Develop an appreciation of the values of science and the contribution of scientists to modern life.
2. Awaken interest in the forces of nature and their effects.
3. Acquaint the individual with scientific information that is vital both to his own actions and to the welfare of society.
4. Provide information pertinent to vocational planning.
5. Provide opportunities to acquire open-mindedness, intellectual honesty, awareness of cause-and-effect relationships, accuracy, a sense of order, and persistence.
6. Demonstrate the importance of scientific research and the means and techniques of scientific investigation.
7. Contribute to the understanding of articles on science in newspapers, magazines, and books.

Curriculum Patterns in Science General science is offered widely in the ninth grade. It usually is preceded by seventh- and eighth-grade science scheduled two to three periods a week or taught daily in alternate semesters. Ninth-grade science may be elective, but seventh- and eighth-grade science commonly is required as part of the pupil's general education.

Materials for the units in general science are drawn from the fields of biology, chemistry, physics, and health. Hence pupils are enabled to explore the possibilities of further science study, and teachers can often identify and guide pupils who show marked ability and interest in science.

Biology is the customary tenth-grade science and has the

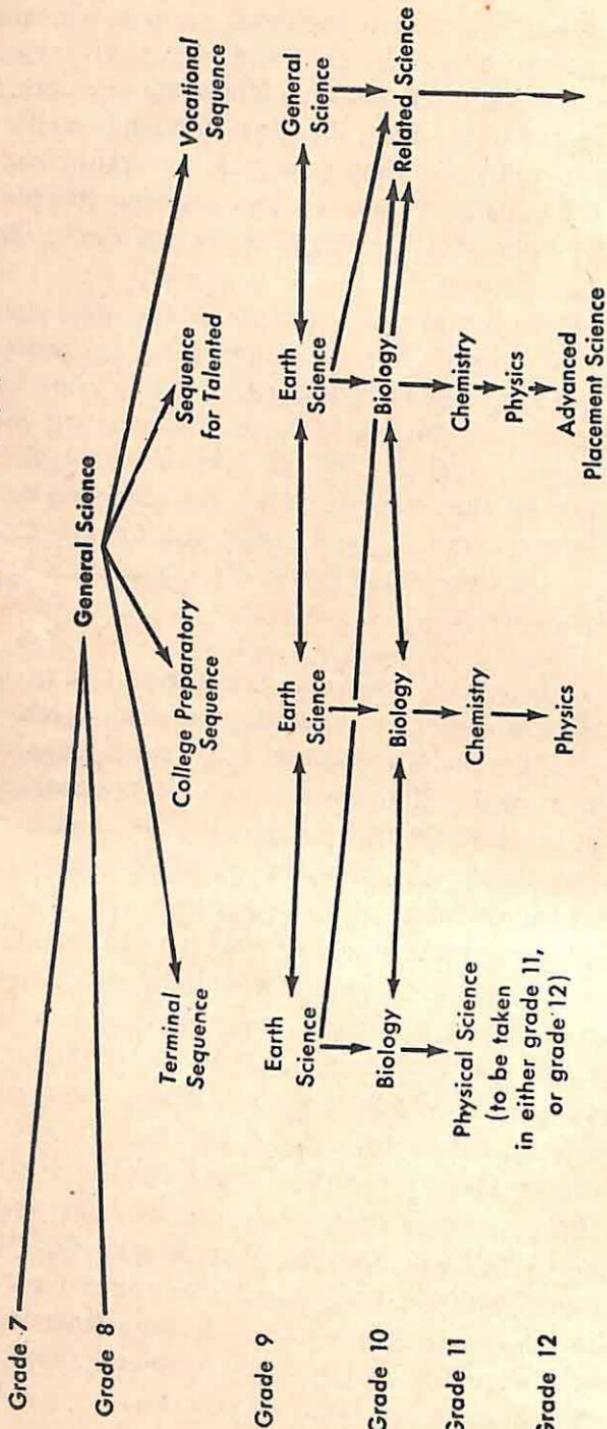
highest enrollments in senior-high-school science. Chemistry and physics are taught in grades eleven and twelve. An examination of biology texts indicates that the authors are attempting to discuss topics related to the everyday life of the pupils and from the discussions to draw as many biological generalizations as possible. This is a departure from the emphasis that was placed on description and classification when botany and zoology were taught as separate courses.

Chemistry and physics are offered primarily as fundamental education. As now taught, they are designed for the pupils of average and superior academic ability. For pupils who cannot succeed in these courses, an eleventh- or twelfth-grade course in physical science frequently is offered. Scientific principles are taught, but major emphasis is placed on descriptions and applications of physical science in everyday life. The extent of course offerings in science for the State of Connecticut are illustrated in Figure 6.

New curriculum content Committees composed of scientists and educators are revising and reorganizing curriculum materials according to grade levels. Some school systems are engaged in projects that begin in the kindergarten with the presentation of simple scientific principles within the ability and interest range of young children, continue in the elementary school, and lead to more advanced study in the secondary school.

Science programs in most junior and senior high schools give evidence of the attempts to include new content and to improve teaching approaches. For example, some secondary schools are experimenting with new physics material being prepared by the Physical Science Study Committee, which was organized in 1956 at The Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The Committee includes university professors, high-school teachers, and science specialists from industry. The project is sponsored by four foundations, including the National Science Foundation. Summer institutes have been conducted for the teachers who are co-operating in the experimental use of these materials; and textbooks, teachers' guides, testing materials, monographs, films, and laboratory materials are being developed.

DIAGRAM OF THE SCIENCE PROGRAM, GRADES 7-12
 (arrows show possible lines of progress for a pupil)



All students should be required to take General Science in grades 7 and 8. It is strongly recommended that all students be urged to take a minimum of two years of science in grades 9-12, preferably one year in grade 9 or 10, and one year in grade 11 or 12. (Science Education Grades 7-12, Curriculum Bulletin Series, No. XII, September, 1958, Hartford, Connecticut, p. 10.)

Figure 6. Diagram of the Science Program, Grades 7-12

Adapting the Curriculum to the Pupils' Abilities Current emphasis on the teaching of science in the secondary schools does not imply that all young people should be regarded as potential scientists. On the one hand, the science program must be adapted to meet the needs and interests of pupils whose ability is limited and whose formal education will end at or before graduation from high school. For them, formulas and detailed descriptions of anatomical structure have little meaning. Science activities which help them acquire and practice good health habits and which give them a knowledge and understanding of the common features of their everyday world will have greater interest and more lasting value. Topics such as air and weather, fuels and heat, water power, chemicals used in the home, natural and synthetic fibers, foods and health, light and lenses, vacuum tubes and the radio, and the effects of nuclear fission closely relate scientific principles to the everyday concerns of these pupils. On the other hand, since the pupils gifted in science show early and continued interest and outstanding ability in science activities, they must have freedom to progress at their own best rate and, with the guidance of master teachers, to make the greatest possible use of special reference materials and opportunities for independent study.

Special activities A variety of arrangements have been made in some school systems to give increased attention to the pupils who show special ability in science. In a few instances, summer classes have been organized, with the pupils selected on the basis of high intelligence, reading ability, interest, and special abilities in science. In others, biology has been moved to the ninth grade to free the twelfth grade for advanced-placement classes. In still others, late afternoon classes have been scheduled.

Recently, one group from the junior high schools and another from the senior high schools of Cleveland began to meet on Saturday mornings at the Administration Building of the Board of Education. Each senior high school sent three outstanding science students and each junior high school sent two. Programs have consisted of talks and demonstrations by scientists from industrial and college laboratories, trips to industrial research departments, and reports on pupils' projects, many of

which are entered in the annual Science Fair. One of the field trips took the groups to the Lewis Research Center of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). A talk by a Cleveland scientist was entitled "Infrared Spectroscopy."

Another modern teaching approach in science is the televised presentation of learning materials by way of a flying laboratory. Among the various subjects televised are General Science for the junior high school and Physics for the senior high school. The daily programs are broadcast to schools in a number of states from one airborne "station."

Federal Assistance Title III of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 provides funds, to be matched by the state, for strengthening the teaching of science in secondary schools. A state plan, approved by the Office of Education, is prepared in advance of the distribution of funds. As with mathematics and foreign languages, the money may be spent for laboratory equipment; for audio-visual materials, such as science films, filmstrips, motion picture and slide projectors, charts, and models; and for printed material other than textbooks. Even minor remodeling of school space is included among the possibilities.

A science information service is established by the National Science Foundation under Title IX of the Act. Scientific information is to be distributed through methods developed with funds made available by the Act.

MATHEMATICS

Mathematics in the secondary school was widely regarded by an earlier generation of teachers as a means of training the mind. The patterns of thought acquired through this discipline were expected to transfer automatically to other situations which the student might face. Hence, during the first fifty years of this century, little change took place in the teaching method or content of secondary-school mathematics courses.

During the 1950's a re-examination of traditional high-school mathematics courses was begun. This study of a field whose sequences once were considered relatively fixed and stable prob-

ably will lead to a thorough revision of secondary-school mathematics. In addition, the variations in abilities, needs, and educational and vocational plans of the pupils now in school point to the necessity for differentiation of courses in secondary mathematics.

Values Inherent in the Study of Mathematics Important cultural values are inherent in mathematics. A better understanding and appreciation of size, distance, art forms, and architecture are gained through knowledge and understanding of mathematical principles. Through mathematics pupils can be given training in understanding abstractions. The facts with which the learner deals can be limited and controlled. Through his study he can be motivated to achieve preciseness and exactness of judgment. Extremely important also are the practical application of mathematics to an individual's daily activities and the utilization of mathematical concepts in certain occupational fields.

Present Trends Much emphasis is still given to algebra and geometry, but new courses have emerged in secondary-school mathematics, including commercial arithmetic, general mathematics, and applied mathematics. These courses have been introduced to satisfy the vocational and less advanced academic needs of those students who do not intend to go on to an institution of higher learning. Fifty or sixty years ago mathematics formed a major part of the pupil's high-school program. In contrast, many modern secondary schools require for graduation only one year of mathematics beyond the eighth grade. (The current emphasis on science may result, of course, in an increase in this requirement.)

The current practice in many junior high schools is for arithmetic to be taught in the seventh and eighth grades, with some intuitive geometry and a brief introduction to algebraic symbols. Beginning with the ninth grade, both algebra and general mathematics are offered. The general mathematics course referred to here is not another introductory course to algebra and geometry. It is, rather, a year's work devoted to the fundamental mathematical principles needed for the solution of problems in daily life. This course is designed for pupils who have shown less than

average mathematical ability and are not likely to do further study in mathematics.

The usual sequence of courses for the academic and college-bound pupils has included beginning algebra, plane geometry, intermediate and advanced algebra, solid geometry, and trigonometry. Re-examination of secondary-school education following the dramatic advances in science and technology during recent years has caused many authorities to recognize the need for a re-organization of secondary-school mathematics for the academically talented. As in science, it is essential that these gifted pupils be identified early, that their interest in mathematics be aroused and sustained, and that they follow a program which challenges them and prepares them for further study in the field.

One city school system, under the direction of the Supervisor of Mathematics and the Bureau of Educational Research, utilizes the following plan to identify pupils' levels of mathematical ability and interest:

1. The Iowa Algebra Aptitude Test is administered to all pupils in the second semester of the eighth grade.
2. Pupils are divided on the basis of their test scores into these classifications:

"a. Boys and girls with a superior aptitude for algebra	Score of 57 or above
b. The middle group, who may or may not be able to profit from a year's work in algebra	Scores between 41 and 56
c. The group of pupils who are almost certain to fail if they undertake the study of algebra." ²	Score of 40 or below
3. The pupils whose scores fall in group *a* above are urged to take algebra. Those in group *c* are advised to take general mathematics. The pupils in the middle groups are guided on the basis of additional factors, such as intelligence scores, judgment of classroom teachers, pupil's future educational plans, and parents' wishes.
4. Pupils who insist on taking algebra in spite of advice to the contrary are allowed to do so. At the end of six weeks, if their work is not satisfactory, they may transfer from algebra to general mathematics.

² Bureau of Educational Research, Bulletin No. 111, February 20, 1959, Cleveland Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, p. 2.

A similar procedure for the second-semester algebra pupils, using the Iowa Plane Geometry Aptitude Test, provides a basis for guidance in electing geometry. This practice is aimed both at early identification of boys and girls talented in mathematics and at the redirection of pupils for whom algebra and geometry would mean only frustration and failure.

A new look at the mathematics curriculum Probably some time will elapse before general agreement is reached on what should be included in a modern program of secondary-school mathematics. Certain trends can be observed, however. The Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board, appointed in 1955, proposes these principles for the reorganization of the mathematics program:

Instruction in mathematics designed to meet the needs of secondary school students for general education should aim to teach the student the basic mathematical ideas and concepts that every citizen needs to know, and to explain the essential character of mathematics—how it is used to explore and describe physical reality, and how it is used to contribute through its aesthetic values to one's personal intellectual satisfaction. More specifically, some objectives of mathematics in general education are:

1. An understanding of, and competence in, the processes of arithmetic and the use of formulas in elementary algebra. A basic knowledge of graphical methods and simple statistics is also important.
2. An understanding of the general properties of geometrical figures and the relationships among them.
3. An understanding of the deductive method as a method of thought. This includes the ideas of axioms, rules of inference, and methods of proof.
4. An understanding of mathematics as a continuing creative endeavor with aesthetic values similar to those found in art and music. In particular, it should be made clear that mathematics is a living subject, not one that has long since been embalmed in textbooks.³

³ Report of the Commission on Mathematics, *Program for College Preparatory Mathematics*, College Entrance Examination Board, New York, 1959, p. 11.

Current considerations of curriculum changes in secondary-school mathematics include discussions of the place of such topics as sets, probability, and elementary statistics. Experiments are being conducted in the teaching of solid geometry at the same time that related material in plane geometry is being studied. The proper content of fourth-year mathematics for students who expect to continue their study of mathematics on an advanced level is also under discussion. Changes in the mathematics curriculum increase the need for a positive guidance program designed to assist pupils in choosing sequences of subjects appropriate to their abilities and purposes.

Pupils who do not take the sequence beginning with algebra may find in the senior high school a number of opportunities somewhat more closely related to their immediate vocational plans. Business mathematics for the business education majors and shop mathematics for the technical students are offered widely. Trade schools provide courses in mathematics directly related to the trade for which the pupil is preparing.

Federal Assistance The National Defense Education Act of 1958 provided grants to state educational agencies, each dollar from the Federal Government to be matched by a state or local dollar, for the improvement of teaching in mathematics. Funds available to the states under Title III of the Act may be used to purchase such teaching materials as mathematical models for class demonstration and films and charts which will make the teaching of mathematics more vivid and meaningful. State education agencies also are assisted financially in expanding their supervisory services for the improvement of teaching in this field.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Health education is a primary concern of national curriculum committees in the secondary field. The Commission on the Re-organization of Secondary Education, NEA, set the pattern by including health as one of the seven "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" in its 1918 Report. The importance of health education was also noted in the publication "Education for All American Youth," by the Educational Policies Commis-

sion, NEA, published in 1944 and revised in 1951. A summary of this publication is contained in a pamphlet produced by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals under the title "Planning for American Youth." This pamphlet also contains the well-known "Ten Imperative Needs of Youth," which includes the need for development and maintenance of good health and physical fitness.

Health The teaching of health standards and practice in modern secondary schools involves several subject fields and school services. In junior-high-school general science courses, health practices, an understanding of the functions of the systems of the body, and the factors affecting growth and health are common subjects for consideration. Biology provides a basis for understanding many human health problems and their solutions. One of the leading objectives of physical education is a healthy body. Home economics is concerned with healthful home surroundings and adequate nutrition. Courses in social studies give attention to community health and sanitation.

Some secondary schools give direct instruction in health education, including both physical and mental health. One period per week is devoted each school year to a consideration of the various aspects of healthful living. Instruction follows a carefully-prepared syllabus; instructional materials include appropriate textbooks and other reading matter, charts, motion pictures, and film strips. The large, year-long units include such topics as the following:

1. An overview of the kinds of health problems that are of interest to secondary-school pupils. A general survey of life in the home, school, and community.
2. Ways of safeguarding one's health: physical examinations; healthful diet, grooming and dress; first aid; competent medical care; community health organizations; and, in some school systems, the possible dangers of using alcohol, tobacco, and drugs.
3. Personal adjustment: understanding one's physical, mental, and emotional potentialities; characteristics of good personal adjustment. (This unit may take the form of a simple course in personal psychology or human relations.)

4. Social adjustments: healthful living in the home, school, and community; parent-child relations; relations with peer-age associates, including dating and use of leisure-time; participation in community activities.
5. School living: relations with school personnel and fellow pupils; study activities; participation in school affairs; the development of leadership.
6. Planning for the future: the development of healthful patterns of adult living; planning for the continuation of study or entrance into the work world; marriage and the assumption of adult responsibilities; the application of the principles of good physical and mental health.

The order in which these large units of study are considered differs, of course, with differing school policy. Other aspects of healthful living may be included to meet young people's needs in a particular school community. In general, however, the areas of instruction here presented are common to the health-education programs of an increasing number of secondary schools.

Physical Education The two general objectives of physical education are to help each young person (1) develop and maintain physical efficiency, and (2) develop interest in continuing participation in such sports and other recreational activities that can have permanent value through the adult years. The curriculum content can be built around related areas of physical education. These objectives are well stated in the curriculum bulletin for secondary schools of Connecticut.

The physical education curriculum during recent years has been undergoing careful scrutiny and evaluation by the members of this profession. Changes in American patterns of living as reflected in family camping, skiing weekends, archery and casting clubs; women joining the men in these and other sports; the evidence which continues to emerge from research in growth and development; and the interest of the national government in the physical fitness of American youth have all contributed to the changing emphases in the curriculum of our schools.

Today, while the basic, sound program of activities remains the same, the following changes in emphasis can be seen: (1) a strength-

ening of the role of conditioning exercises for physical fitness (2) greater use of objective measurement and testing programs for fitness and for sports skills (3) increased emphasis on individual sports for leisure-time use and for social values (4) growing enthusiasm for apparatus work, tumbling, weight-lifting (boys), creative modern dance (girls) and (5) the placing of emphasis on team sports approximately two years sooner in the program as a result of earlier psychological maturation. The peak of girls' interest in team sports is at the eighth and ninth grade level after which they become more interested in individual sports. Boys reach a high degree of skill and coordination earlier but continue their intense interest in team sports throughout high school along with wanting to learn new individual sports skills.

The underlying purposes of all good physical education programs are to build organic vigor, strength, endurance, agility, balance, neuromuscular coordination, sports and dance skills for leisure-time use, as well as to encourage healthy social and emotional development.

The best physical education curriculum should offer instruction and satisfying practice experience to all students in the following areas of physical activities:

1. Body building or body conditioning for fitness
2. Self-testing activities: stunts, tumbling, apparatus
3. Rhythmic activities: folk, square, modern, social dance
4. Team Sports
5. Individual Sports
6. Camping and Outdoor Education
7. Aquatics

In addition to these areas, the good physical education program provides opportunities for students to learn leadership responsibilities through such activities as Leaders Corps, Co-recreational Sports Clubs, Modern or Square Dance Clubs, Student Assistants and Student Athletic Associations. The curriculum should also meet the needs of the students who must be in a restricted program because of a physical handicap, as well as the highly gifted student who has his needs met through the varsity interscholastic program.

The physical education curriculum, unlike most curricula consisting of classroom instruction only, includes four major divisions: (1) the classroom instruction content (2) the intramural program which provides for voluntary participation in individual and team sports within the school (3) the extramural program which offers opportunities for informal athletic competition between two or more schools

and (4) the interscholastic program, providing for an organized program of interschool competition.⁴

The physical education curriculum of the Connecticut secondary schools differs for the junior high school and senior high school because

(1) the developmental and physical education needs of boys and girls in Grades 7, 8 and 9 differ markedly from their needs in the senior high years and (2) the curriculum pattern should provide for flexibility in planning. Over-specificity may cause freezing of certain activities at certain grade levels. These two approaches are intended as samples of possible framework for local curriculum development. Schools must develop their local curriculum based on the physical development of their students, their abilities and needs; the school and community facilities available; the amount and variety of equipment supplied; the scheduled time for the program; and most important of all, the number of qualified physical education teachers on the staff.⁵

Health Services The doctor and nurse can be effective teaching aides in health and physical education. Physical examinations at various grade levels give the health teacher a basis on which to urge pupils and parents to secure the correction of pupils' remediable physical defects. The teacher of physical education uses the doctor's recommendation for determining the type of physical activity best suited to the pupil's needs and physical limitations.

The nurse is available for individual health counseling and for occasional classroom discussions. She checks new arrivals and takes care of emergencies in the school. X-ray examinations are routine in many school systems. Cases of communicable diseases are identified. Members of teams in competitive athletics receive physical examinations by the school doctor.

Every teacher needs to be alert to problems of health preservation. Providing proper heat, light, and ventilation in the classroom is the concern of all teachers. The teachers of health and physical education have special responsibilities. They are con-

⁴ Physical Education, Grades 7-12, Curriculum Bulletin Series No. XI November, 1958, Hartford, Connecticut, pp. 10-11.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

cerned about the reduction of overlarge classes, the separation of gymnasium or playground activities from class work, and the integration of health and physical education with other subject areas.

THE PRACTICAL ARTS AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational competence and effective contribution to home and family living have been stressed as objectives by a succession of national committees concerned with secondary education. Advances in business operation and in industrial methods have required schools to introduce new methods and concepts into the curriculum.

Educational problems in these areas are complicated by the presence in the high schools of pupils having diverse abilities and varieties of vocational interests. For those boys and girls whose formal education ends at the secondary-school level, preparation for earning a living becomes a primary need. For other pupils, who will continue their education beyond high school, some knowledge of the processes of business and industry represents an important part of their general education.

Home Economics Homemaking education in secondary schools has two aims: general education, and specialized education directed toward the understanding and appreciation of home living. Home economics deals with such areas as food, clothing, the home, child care, family budget, social relationships, and service to others—family, community, nation, and the world. Activities in these areas represent the responsibilities of most American homemakers. At one time most home economics students were girls, but boys are now enrolling in such courses, since the responsibility of men for the welfare of the home is reaching beyond the provision of money alone.

Junior-high-school girls (less often boys) customarily take home economics in the seventh and eighth grades as one of their required subjects. One semester a year is devoted to the study of clothing, and one to the study of foods. The clothing instruction gives training in the selection of materials, in hand sewing and, later, in the operation of the sewing machine. The ninth-grade

course, usually elective, is concerned with consumer buying of fabrics and the use of commercial dress patterns.

Foods courses in grades seven and eight feature simple menu planning and cleanliness and safety in the kitchen. Correct table setting and table service are introduced. Wise selection and purchase of food, preparation and attractive serving of healthful meals, and efficient ways of using modern kitchen appliances make the ninth-grade foods course an interesting advance over the previous instruction.

Home economics in the senior high school reflects the maturing interests and abilities of the older adolescent. Home and family living provide much of the subject matter of these courses, and the development of the personality of the individual pupil, together with improved skills and techniques in food preparation and in the construction and selection of clothing, is a central aim.

The minimum program for senior high school might be a two-year sequence of foods and clothing. Larger school systems add a clothing production course in which the students alter clothing and make garments for another person. A semester of needlecraft also may be offered. Further work in foods includes food preparation to fill individual orders, tearoom service and management, and special time-saving techniques for students who will combine homemaking and outside employment.

Industrial Arts The content of junior-high-school industrial arts is chosen to explore some of the major industrial processes, within the practical limitations of the school facilities and appropriate to pupil maturity. A typical seventh-grade program alternates woodwork with mechanical drawing. Graphic arts and metal work can be explored in the eighth grade. Ninth-grade pupils may elect to take further instruction in one of the four fields previously surveyed. As pupils study industrial applications, they view and discuss related films and other visual materials. They thereby become informed about the industrial life of their community and begin to appreciate the realities of daily work in industry.

Students in the comprehensive senior high school interested in the graphic arts can study the principles of typesetting and press

work. A number of special techniques are practiced. Mechanical drawing is continued, with attention to the proper use of instruments and to lettering. Metal work involves forging, making molds, and operating lathes, shapers, and planers. Cabinet-making climaxes the woodworking experiences and is concerned with choice of wood, finishes, and upholstering.

Technical high schools offer specialized sequences of courses which cover some important techniques in industry. Such courses as aeronautics, architectural drawing, automotive mechanics, cabinet-making, electricity, foundry, machine drawing, machine shop, pattern-making, photography, printing, and welding are found in the industrial arts programs of the technical high schools.

For most pupils, the industrial arts curriculum is aimed at a realization of the objectives of general education—that is, it is designed to provide the education the student needs for everyday living. Some pupils show marked interest and superior ability in industrial arts. As these pupils progress, they are taught specialized skills, which will have vocational value in industry.

Since the beginning of federal aid for various kinds of vocational education there has been a steady increase in enrollments in industrial arts courses and in the number of schools with industrial arts programs. Trade and industrial education can be carried on both in industry itself and in properly equipped schools. The many co-operative programs that are emerging in big cities throughout the country attest to the success of programs in which public schools, industry, and labor share.

Business Education Departments of business education—also called commercial education—expanded during the past thirty-five years. Early in the century, business colleges prepared learners of high-school age or older for work in the commercial field. More recently the secondary schools themselves have been assuming that function. Similarly, at one time, industry trained most of its sales personnel in business manners and sales techniques. Now high schools and colleges are teaching these skills—this program is known as distributive education—and are including in their curriculums an appropriate amount of learning through actual experience.

Business education on the secondary-school level is at present in transition. It began with the teaching of subjects found in the private business schools. Now there is a gradual movement toward including in the school program a greater number of offerings, and aims have broadened to include the cultural as well as the vocational.

Typing in the junior high school provides the students with some typing skill for personal use and also with an opportunity to explore one of the skills used in business. Many comprehensive senior high schools give instruction in shorthand, typing, and record keeping. Some high schools are able to go beyond that minimum with sequences in bookkeeping, including machine bookkeeping, machine calculation, transcription using recording devices, office production, and advanced shorthand and typing. General business information and salesmanship may also be offered.

Some college-bound secondary-school pupils elect courses in typing and stenography for their practical value in preparation of reports and themes, note taking in class, and part-time work. Most students in commercial courses are preparing themselves for business, however, and guidance toward vocational work is an important service for them.

Agriculture The objectives in the teaching of vocational agriculture include (1) appreciating agriculture both as a vocation and as a pattern of living, (2) acquiring the information, developing the understanding, and learning the techniques necessary for success in farming and related occupations, and (3) gaining practical experience in agriculture through individual and community projects. Such organizations as the Future Farmers of America provide opportunities for the association of young people having similar interests and give incentive to school learning.

The teaching of vocational classes in agriculture was made possible by the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act and later Congressional legislation. The courses offered conform to the details of the state plan, administered by the state department of education and the local school district. Typical subjects in this program include animal husbandry, soils and crops, dairy tech-

nology, horticulture, and farm equipment maintenance and repair. The vocational agriculture teacher, usually employed on a twelve-month basis, spends the summer months supervising the individual progress of his pupils.

Federal Legislation for Vocational Education Since 1917, trade, industrial, and agricultural education, as well as home economics, has been financed partially by the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act and other Congressional acts. Under a state plan, the program usually is conducted with the co-operation of the state board of education, the board of education of the local school district, and the specific occupational groups of the community. Funds are available for distributive education through the George-Deen Act, passed by Congress in 1936 and expanded in 1946. Training takes place both in school and in retail sales stores with the co-operation of retail merchants' boards.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What specific science topics would you include in a series of meetings for science-talented pupils from the junior high schools of your district?
2. Using the suggested reference materials at the end of this chapter, list a sequence of units for a course in physical science for pupils of somewhat limited ability.
3. As a member of a committee appointed to recommend the selection of a biology textbook, what objectives would you list for the teaching of biology in the secondary school?
4. One of your eighth-grade homeroom pupils has tested low on the algebra aptitude test. The mathematics teacher has recommended general mathematics. How will you present the matter to the pupil's parents?
5. What future changes do you expect in the content of geometry?
6. After consulting the pamphlets issued by the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board, make a list of the new types of secondary-school mathematical material now being tried, and prepare a brief statement about each type.
7. What are the underlying reasons for the re-examination of the mathematics program for secondary schools?
8. An examination has shown that several of the pupils in the seventh-grade science class need the attention of a dentist. The

class is discussing physical examinations in the health unit. How shall the teacher go about securing action on these remediable defects?

9. What do you think of the wisdom of requiring health courses in the senior high school?
10. What are the arguments for and against having the football coach teach physical education?
11. Choosing one of the general objectives for physical education stated on page 182, make a list of the activities in physical education which may contribute to that objective.
12. Point to valuable outcomes in general education for the boy who takes woodwork in the tenth grade of a comprehensive high school.
13. The dramatic club has asked the home economics department to make costumes for the school play. As the teacher of clothing, can you justify taking class time to make the costumes? Why or why not?
14. The senior girls in the distributive education class spend a half-day in the retail store and a half-day in school. Who is responsible for their supervision in the store?
15. An employer complains that the pupil he hired is a poor typist. Investigation shows that the pupil was graduated in the lowest quarter of the class and that the prospective employer did not check with the school placement officer before employing this pupil. What should be said and who should say it?

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The Curriculum and Special Life Activities

Preparation for participation in life activities is a major concern of educators. In the secondary school some provision is made for four important learning areas: education for marriage and family life, preparation for occupational competence, consumer education, and education for international understanding.

Everyone agrees that socially desirable attitudes and correct information are vitally important. But *when*, *where*, and *by whom* this type of education should be given are questions to which satisfactory answers have not yet been found. If the school is to assume the responsibility, two problems face the curriculum builders: what materials should be included and how these materials should be organized—as separate courses of study or as parts of a program of related studies. Whatever curriculum approach is utilized, every adolescent should receive appropriate preparation for participation in common areas of life activity.

HOME AND FAMILY LIVING

Education for home and family living is needed by all American youth. School people realize that this is a broad field of learning to which many subjects can contribute, among them the following:

1. Choice of a mate
2. Marriage and marital adjustment
3. Management of the home
4. Physical welfare
5. Development of the child's behavior and emotional controls

6. Physical structure and physiological functions, commonly referred to as *sex education*

Several of these areas of learning are receiving considerable attention in American schools. Home management and family budgeting are included in economics and home economics curriculums. The child's physical welfare is a major concern in some home economics curriculums and health education courses. The inclusion of teaching about sex relationships, however, has not yet received complete community approval in many sections of the country and is not always encouraged.

Choice of a Mate The American people have adopted the ideal of romantic love as the basis for marriage. Hence attempts to help young people use their heads as well as their hearts in their boy-girl relationships sometimes are viewed as introducing materialistic factors into a situation that should be idealistic. There are, of course, many successful marriages built on more or less idealized concepts of marriage and marital relations. The complexities of modern civilization, however, can give rise to many sources of maladjustment in human relationships, and choosing one's mate wisely and then, after marriage, living in co-operatively achieved peace and contentment are difficult tasks, for which guidance is useful.

The secondary school can provide many opportunities for boys and girls to become acquainted with one another and to learn how to behave in one another's company. School and school-community projects, school-sponsored dances, dramatic and musical productions, debates, and forum discussions are excellent means of helping young people work and play together.

In some senior high schools (but more commonly in colleges) marriage and family life are studied in the classroom. Courses are offered in which psychological factors of adjustment are discussed and applications to individual situations are made. Individual problems can be considered in private conferences with a sympathetic instructor.

The Development of the Child's Behavior and Emotional Controls This topic is receiving considerable attention in child study classes on the college level and in adult classes, but not

enough is being done in this area on the secondary-school level. Too many young people who do not continue their education beyond the secondary school embark upon parenthood with little or no appreciation of the problems involved in rearing a child. Often it is not until a youngster shows undesirable attitudes and behavior that the parents begin to realize they need expert help in dealing with him and consult a psychologist or psychiatrist. Many times, however, this help comes too late, since it is difficult to change behavior patterns formed during early childhood.

We need more curricular offerings in the secondary school to prepare young people for the responsibilities of parenthood. Leadership in this educational area has been taken by the Western states, where some excellent courses are offered in both small and large secondary schools.

Parents and Sex Education Instruction concerning physical structure and physiological functions, commonly referred to as *sex education*, is a delicate matter. Some educators and lay persons believe that, although education in this area is very important, it is primarily the responsibility of the parents. Some parents believe their child will discover the truth about his own body naturally, as they did. They forget that during their own youth they probably received a great deal of misinformation that colored their attitude toward sex matters.

Some parents, remembering their own youthful experiences, recognize their child's need for proper instruction but are afraid to give it. Many of these parents would like to have the schools take over the task completely. Others are torn between the desire to have their children learn about sex and their religious or personal scruples concerning the inclusion of these matters in the regular school program. Finally, there are those parents who are well adjusted emotionally in their own marital life who help their child learn about his body and teach him simple facts about birth. These parents then encourage the school to continue from that point in giving their son or daughter an adequate preparation for courtship, marriage, and family responsibilities.

The term *sex education* has come into some disrepute because of prevailing misconceptions of its character. Some people feel

that courses in sex education place emphasis on the sex act and on sex perversions and abnormalities. The executives of the American Social Health Association prefer the use of the term *education for home and family living*. In their educational program, they emphasize that development of proper attitudes is as important as giving information concerning physical structure and physiological function, if not more important. This Association, aided by farsighted and intelligent lay people, has done much to awaken communities to the need of proper education in this area.

Curriculum Contributions The social studies courses can contribute to the attitudes and understandings needed by boys and girls to appreciate the importance to themselves and to society of adequate family life. A curriculum guide, "Home and Family as a Social Institution," has been prepared by the Junior High School Social Studies Curriculum Committee and by staff members of the Curriculum Office of the Philadelphia Public Schools for use in the seventh grade.

The main objectives of this unit are stated as follows:

- A. To help boys and girls understand, appreciate, and participate intelligently in their own family and home life.
- B. To help the boys and girls become the kinds of people who will provide the strengthened and improved home life needed in the future.
- C. To help youth get a perspective, historically and geographically, of the Social Institution of Home and Family Life.¹

The unit includes a study of homes and families today, followed by attention to the homes and family life of other ages and peoples. A summary section on home and family as a social institution completes the unit. Class activities are suggested, and a valuable bibliography of supplementary books and visual materials is provided.

Many constructive attitudes toward home and family life can grow out of skillful interpretations of family situations in literature. Boys and girls can arrive at a clearer understanding of their own experiences by reading and discussing the stories of other families written by capable and perceptive authors. "Reading

¹ Philadelphia Public Schools, *Home and Family as a Social Institution*, The Curriculum Office, 1959

"Ladders for Human Relations," a booklet prepared by Margaret M. Heaton and Helen B. Lewis as part of the project "Inter-group Education in Cooperating Schools," includes an annotated bibliography on "Patterns of Family Life." The portions for junior and senior readers list many books, such as *The Yearling*, by Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings, as examples of stories which picture with understanding the relationships of the members of a family.

In some senior high schools, the sections of second-semester biology are scheduled separately for boys and girls so that the biology teacher can present information and build understandings regarding reproduction in a scientific context. Both principal and teachers are alert to the degree of acceptance prevailing in the school community. They recognize that the parents, not the school, have primary responsibility for education in this subject.

Home economics probably contributes more to education for home and family life than any other subject. Knowledge about foods and clothing is fundamental to the management of a family. The improvement of personal habits is another significant contribution of home economics. Industrial arts, oriented largely toward the industrial world, also has homemaking elements, such as cabinet-making, house plans, and home repairs. Family budgets are planned in mathematics classes, and consumer information is found in business education. Finally, art has many uses in home decoration.

OCCUPATIONAL COMPETENCE

The ability to earn a living is an educational outcome which concerns parents, pupils, teachers, and society. The school's responsibility in this area falls on the school counselor and the subject departments, particularly in senior high schools. Intelligent, co-operative planning can insure that all the curricular possibilities are utilized in the preparation of young men and women for productive employment.

Vocational Selection Vocational preparation in the secondary school is closely allied to guidance activities. Though the discovery of his interests and aptitudes is a personal problem for

each young person, he needs help from a competent counselor if he is to gain an intelligent understanding of his own potentialities. In addition, opportunities should be provided for all young people to learn about available occupational fields. Whenever the choice of a vocation is made, it should be based on a thorough job analysis and a careful personal evaluation.

Vocational Preparation From the elementary school onward, a young person learns ideas and skills which he will use in his life's work. There are few occupations in which fundamental skills of communication and training in logical thinking are not needed. Moreover, businessmen and industrialists claim that an employee's personal attitudes and behavior characteristics are as important as his skill in a specific job. Job promotion usually depends on a worker's industry, accuracy, co-operativeness, punctuality, loyalty, and general emotional stability. Hence all teachers, especially in the secondary school, are training their pupils indirectly for job competence when emphasis is placed on the development of these characteristics in classroom situations.

Pupils who plan to continue their vocational education beyond the secondary school are concerned mainly with the problem of selecting a program of studies acceptable for entrance to the higher school of their choice. Those who will go directly to work need specialized training.

The types of vocational courses offered in a secondary school depend in large part on expected occupational needs of the community and on modern occupational techniques. Curriculum content obviously needs to be up to date. There is an increased interchange of ideas between vocational educators and leaders of business and industry. In fact, in some places such leaders are invited to participate in the building of curriculums in their fields.

Curriculum Contributions in Academic Secondary Schools Classroom teachers must provide the occupational information related to their particular subjects. Planning with the guidance staff insures the availability of information when it is needed.

The industrial arts can become the source of much informa-

tion on vocations. Films showing industrial occupations and processes are in demand for this purpose. The teacher's experiences in industry, if recent, are helpful. Opportunities for employment in the foods and clothing industries are outlined in home economics. Business education aims at developing the skills essential to office operation. The vocational value of some learnings, particularly in writing and in speaking, are not appreciated immediately, but their bearing on eventual occupational success is often crucial.

Co-operation among instructional departments is generally characteristic of comprehensive high schools. With the many types of learning going on under one roof, the curriculum can be sufficiently flexible to allow students and their counselors considerable leeway in program adjustment.

Specialized Schools Trade schools and some technical schools offer specialized training leading directly to employment in a particular trade or industry. Here the relationship between school instruction and the requirements of employers and craftsmen is very close.

Adjusted Occupational Curriculum In most secondary schools there are some pupils whose mental ability and range of vocational interest are low. They can be expected to gain competence only in simple occupational activities. These young people usually are retarded academically and look forward impatiently to the day when they will be old enough to quit school. Many leave at the end of the first year of senior high school. Unfortunately, they rarely are fitted by that time for any special field of work.

To meet the needs of these people, some schools have constructed an occupational curriculum which will prepare them to engage successfully in the simpler vocational activities. Where two-year courses of this kind have been offered to well-selected pupils, the results have been most gratifying.

Schools which adjust the curriculum to meet the vocational needs of the academically retarded do the following:

1. Reduce academic requirements to a minimum: general mathematics, general science, the fundamentals of spoken

and written English, and the reading of simple stories and magazine articles.

2. Attempt to discover the vocational interest and ability of the slow learner and train the pupil to engage in simple tasks, such as filing.
3. Compile a list of employers that are willing to hire retarded young people who are well trained in the performance of simple tasks.
4. Place the pupil in a position for which he has been prepared.
5. Follow the individual's progress on the job and provide further training for him if it is needed.

Teachers' experiences with industry In a number of urban centers, industries and schools have co-operated in planning visits by teachers to industrial plants, visits calculated to give teachers a better understanding of the places where many of their pupils will earn their living. The local board of trade or chamber of commerce frequently acts as agent in arranging these tours. In the more successful visits, the teachers not only tour the plant but are given the opportunity to discuss with representatives of industry some of the problems which teachers face in helping their pupils achieve occupational competence. Extremely valuable also is actual participation by the teacher in appropriate work situations: in some school systems one requirement for eligibility to teach a trade is occupational experience.

CONSUMER ATTITUDES

One might wonder, as he watches people shopping, how many of them really know how to shop. Do they know exactly what they want or are they willing to be shown? Do they understand values or do they respond to high-pressure salesmanship? Are they getting full value for their money?

In general, Americans are a prosperous people. They spend money easily. They have developed many consumer needs and are developing many more. Do they know how to fit their expenditures within the limits of their incomes? These are some of

the dimensions of the subject matter of consumer education.

Deliberate consumer education appears to have had its beginning in 1927, when the publication of Chase and Schlink's *Your Money's Worth* started a movement that resulted in the organization of *Consumer's Research* and the *Consumer's Union*. Economic problems arising after World War I pointed up the need for schools to provide training in buying and spending, budgeting and saving, and commodity selection. World War II aroused new interest in an education movement the value of which had been recognized for some twenty years but about which comparatively little had been done.

Present Status of Consumer Education The main purpose of consumer education is to encourage intelligent and effective buying and conscientious marketing of consumer goods. Although relatively few schools conduct programs of education in this field, experimentation with special courses has shown some good results.

Some schools schedule separate courses in consumer education; others expect each teacher independently to present the information and develop the skills related to his particular subject. Thomas H. Briggs, director of the Consumer Education Study, sees consumer education eventually as a program which the entire faculty plans and to which each member contributes.

The Consumer Education Study, sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals with funds from the National Better Business Bureau, has prepared and published a series of unit booklets on such topics as using advertising, making the most of one's time, understanding about law and the consumer, using standards and labels, handling money, and buying insurance. There are eleven units in all; these booklets can be purchased from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Curriculum Contributions The quality of materials to be purchased and their suitability for use receive considerable attention in both home economics and industrial arts. Mathematics problems can deal with installment buying and the use of credit. Business classes may study loans and home financing. Pure foods

and government inspection are treated in biology. All these subject fields contribute to a school-wide program in consumer attitudes.

INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

International relations have a direct effect on the future plans of thousands of pupils now in school. The stake which today's adolescents have in the issues of war and peace makes the understanding of international affairs a real need for secondary-school pupils. The development of wholesome and constructive attitudes toward other peoples and governments and an intelligent appreciation of traditions and customs different from our own constitute an important field of education.

Group meetings of representatives from many countries are excellent media for encouraging international understanding. The leaders of various countries who attend such seminars and conferences take back to their countries, especially to their schools, the seeds of world friendship and co-operation. For example, groups of teachers and other school personnel attend five-week summer workshops at the University of Puerto Rico. The purpose of this project is to acquaint the participating school people with the cultural background of pupils in the schools whose families have migrated from Puerto Rico. Similar programs aimed at international and cultural understanding are in progress.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), established for the purpose "of advancing the objectives of international peace and of the common welfare of mankind," has held seminars in Czechoslovakia, Great Britain, and the United States. The purpose of such meetings has been to further the ideal of "Education for International Understanding."

Worthy of note is the Herald Tribune Youth Forum, which has been in operation since 1947. This program is a co-operative nonprofit public service, sponsored by private enterprise, the aim of which is to improve international relations. The participants are:

1. **Pan American World Airways** and **Trans World Airlines** which provide off-season pass transportation for student delegates (one each from approximately thirty-five countries representing all five continents), to spend three months in the United States (January through March).
2. **Ministers of Education** in participating countries, who sponsor nationwide competitions for the selection of Forum delegates.
3. **High Schools in the New York area** which arrange hospitality for Forum delegates in the homes of their students and design a program of school and community activities that will be of mutual educational benefit to delegates and host students.
4. **The New York Herald Tribune** The Forum office organizes and administers the Forum project which includes bi-weekly seminars, a weekly TV discussion among Forum delegates that is rebroadcast on 40 educational TV stations throughout the U.S., group trips to Washington, D.C., and other places of interest, and an annual Forum for 2000 selected American high school students. Proceedings of the Forum are published verbatim in the New York Herald Tribune. A quarterly Newsletter maintains continuing contact with hundreds of Forum Alumni in 73 countries. Three annual Forum Alumni Fellowships are available for Forum delegates.

The visitors attend three "hospitality" secondary schools, for a period of about three weeks each. During his stay at a particular school, each young person lives with the family of one of the school's students. He shares household duties and joins in daily school and community activities. Toward the end of March, a program is conducted at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel in New York, where the young visitors summarize their experiences during their three-months stay in the United States. Through the media of radio and television, millions of American young people, as well as their elders, are able to benefit from this challenging educational project.

Classroom Learnings Social studies are the principal source of background information and materials upon which conclusions in the field of international understanding can be based. History explains how current situations emerge from past causes. Geography describes peoples as related to their physical environment. In social studies an appreciation of the privileges and re-

sponsibilities of citizens under the American form of government is developed; the types of government in other countries are studied and the status of their citizens analyzed.

Understanding the relations among nations may involve other subject fields as well. Foreign languages provide a knowledge and appreciation of other customs and culture. Knowledge of the work of individual scientists in other nations can be a means of widening the pupils' interest in those countries and their contributions. The literature of a nation can yield knowledge and understanding of its people.

International Issues It is not enough, in this world, simply to describe other peoples with the expectation that friendly understanding will result. The international questions which separate nations must be faced and understood. The Division of Social Studies of the Cleveland Public Schools broadcasts a series of weekly programs to the senior high schools over school radio station WBOE. These programs, called "Current Topics," are devoted to local, state, national, and international issues. They generally include an interview with a public figure associated with the activity being discussed or a layman well-informed on the topic.

Representative titles of programs dealing with international affairs during one school year were these:

A New International Crisis

Examining the United Nations

A New France

Are We Approaching World Peace?

Cuba Two Months After

Why the Berlin Crisis?

Democratic Gains in Latin America

Economic War; Dollars vs. Rubles

Cleveland, World Port on an Inland Sea²

Topics concerned with international understanding provide many suggestions for interesting and informative assembly pro-

²Cleveland Public Schools, *Current Topics*, Classroom Teacher's Guide for Social Studies Radio Lessons, Division of Social Studies and Station WBOE, 1959.

grams. Costumes, songs, and dances of foreign lands add color to these presentations and center school-wide attention on relations among the nations.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The question of the divorce rate in the United States is being discussed in a twelfth-grade problems class. How can that issue be related to a study of family life?
2. In what way do community attitudes guide the biology teacher in discussions of the reproduction of living things?
3. What use may be made of museums of natural history or health museums in the teaching of family relationships?
4. Suggest the steps in planning a joint unit of work on home and family living. The committee consists of the teachers of home economics, science, social studies; industrial arts, and mathematics.
5. Plan an introduction to a discussion of the family relationships described in one of the "Reading Ladder" books or another book chosen for its understanding portrayal of family life.
6. As a teacher of mathematics, what questions would you like to ask the office manager who uses an electronic computer in his work?
7. How much uniformity in the method of presentation of occupational information do you consider desirable among senior-high-school teachers of restaurant management, advanced electricity, office production, and chemistry? Give reasons for your answer.
8. What are the advantages of a separate course in occupations?
9. How would you present to a local retail merchants' association the reasons for organizing a school program of consumer education?
10. As the teacher of one of the subjects included in a school-wide consumer education program, what specific contributions from your field would you suggest to the committee?
11. You have been asked to sponsor an assembly program about a foreign country, many of whose former citizens are now living in your community. What local resources outside the school might you use in this program?
12. Try your hand at outlining a fifteen-minute radio script for a broadcast on a current issue in international relations directed to junior-high-school social studies classes.

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Out-of-Class School Activities

In the foregoing chapters we have discussed the general and specific principles that underlie secondary-school curriculum reorganization in the light of the current learning needs of American youth. Educational policy makers tend to agree on the basic educational objectives to be achieved; they do not agree on whether learning activities that are limited to regular classroom situations can function effectively for the complete development and adjustment of adolescents.

IN-CLASS AND OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES

Curriculum in relation to co-curriculum, semi-curriculum, supercurriculum, or extracurriculum; in-class in relation to out-of-class or extraclass activities; credit courses in relation to non-credit curricularized activities—these are some of the terms used to differentiate between what are regarded as the two major categories of secondary-school activities.

Curriculum in Relation to Co-curriculum As we know, the curricular offerings of the secondary school are intended to include the areas of learning that help students with differing abilities and interests prepare themselves to meet the many demands made on them by society, both as adolescents and later as adults. If the curriculum is based on valid and practical objectives, is well organized and soundly administered, and if teaching procedures are appropriate, study activities are profitable and enjoyable. In addition, many educational objectives can be realized indirectly through student participation in those activities which are organized by the school but are not part of the formal curriculum—the co-curricular activities.

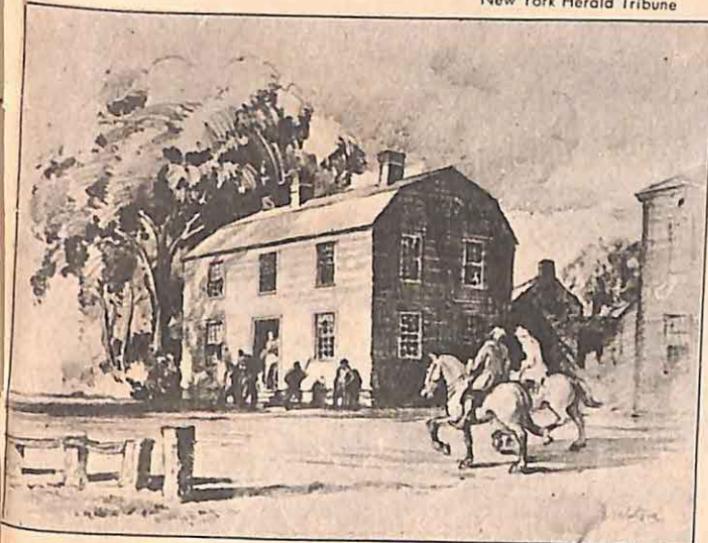
The adolescent boy or girl lives in a secondary-school building for at least five hours daily, for about 180 days a year, for six years. He becomes or should become more than a desk-sitter participating in regular learning activities. He is a part of the school community. He has a share in all the areas of activity that comprise the life of the school community. Some of these activities take place in the classroom; others take place outside the classroom.

Out-of-class activities are those more or less informal school affairs that do not take the form of a course of study, do not carry credit toward graduation, and are placed on a point system rather than earning for the participant a mark or grade. In many instances, extra-class activities have their beginnings in the regular classroom learning situation. For example, the teacher of a third-year high-school class in English was deeply interested in Shakespeare and inspired a similar interest among some of her pupils, with the result that they formed a Shakespeare Club to read and analyze plays not included in the regular course of study. A special interest in the sciences, in mathematics, in writing, or in any other learning area may stimulate the formation of informal groups for continued study of the subject during out-of-class hours.

The special-interest groups can afford education as well as enjoyment to those who participate in the activities, and their existence may affect the curriculum itself. If pupil interest continues, the out-of-class activity may become a regular part of the curriculum. Extracurricular projects that have found or are finding a place for themselves in the curriculum include dramatics, debating, certain athletic activities, and work on school newspapers and yearbooks. Although some of these activities have found their way into the curriculum, many details are cared for after class hours. A journalism class, for example, may be responsible for the weekly or bi-weekly school newspaper, but, since the many tasks of production cannot be completed within the regular recitation periods, they become out-of-class activities.

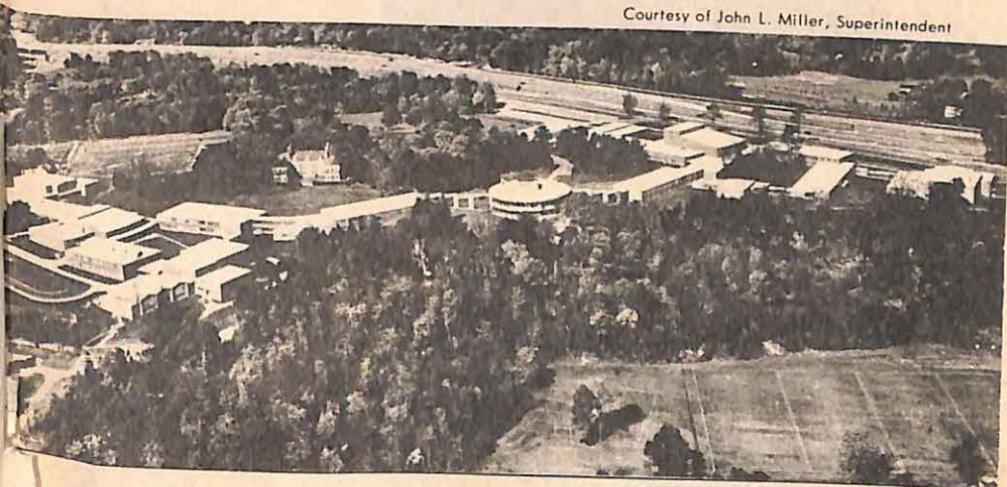
Attitudes toward extraclass projects There are educators who would limit the secondary school to preparation for intellectual competence, and who frown upon school-sponsored rec-

New York Herald Tribune

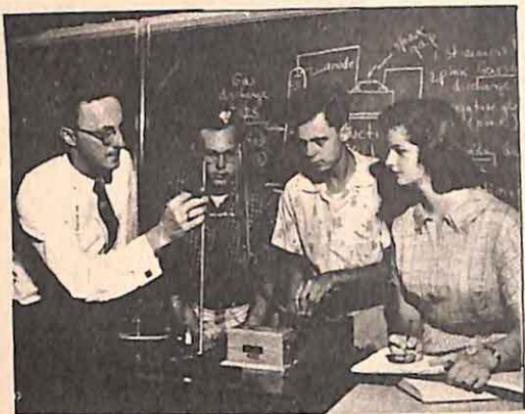


Boston Latin School, the first secondary school in America

Courtesy of John L. Miller, Superintendent



Modern Junior and Senior High School, Great Neck, New York



San Diego City Schools

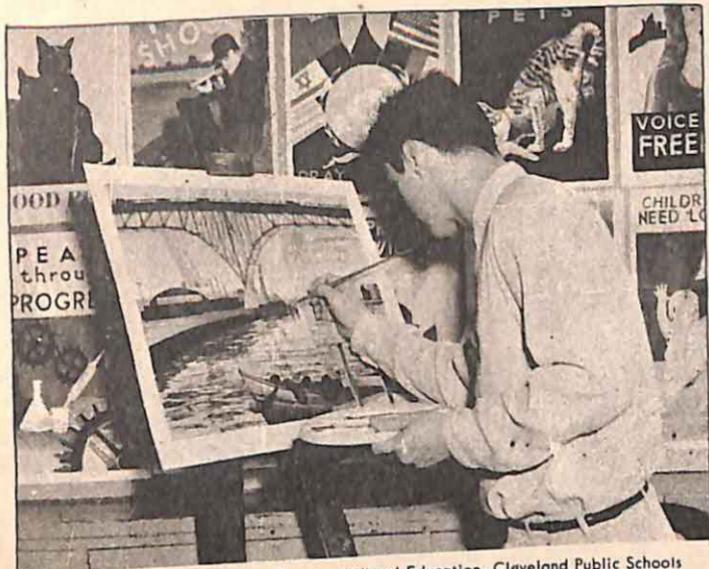


Amherst Central High School, Snyder, N. Y.

The Modern Secondary School



Bureau of Visual Education,
Cleveland Public Schools



Bureau of Visual Education, Cleveland Public Schools

Has a Diversified Curriculum

Bureau of Visual Education, Cleveland Public Schools





Cincinnati Public Schools

The Modern Secondary School Uses

Pittsburgh Public Schools

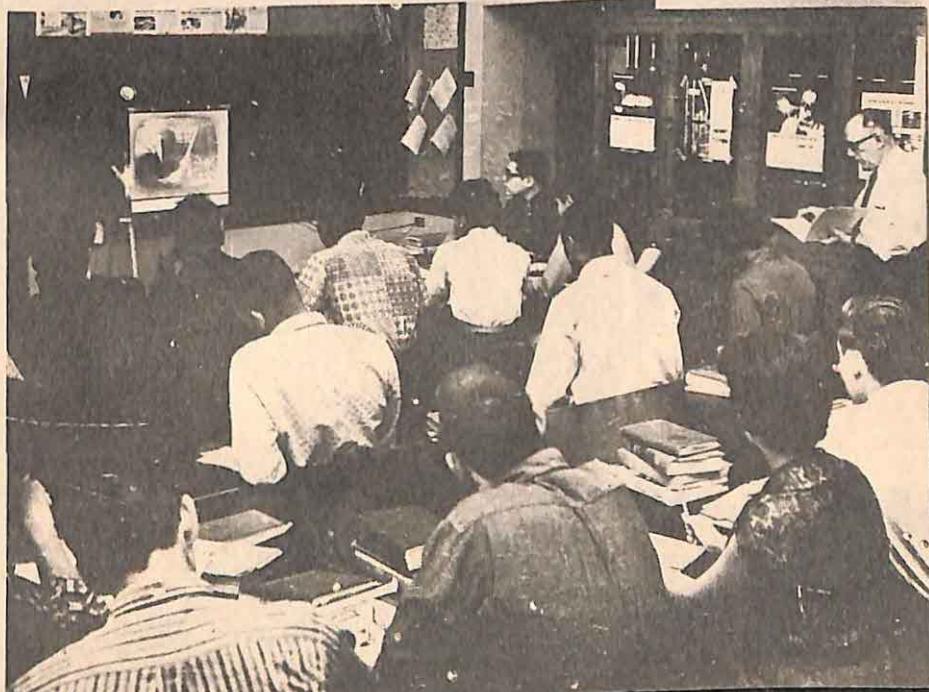




Indianapolis, Indiana, Marie Fraser photos

A Variety of Technical Aids

Pittsburgh Public Schools

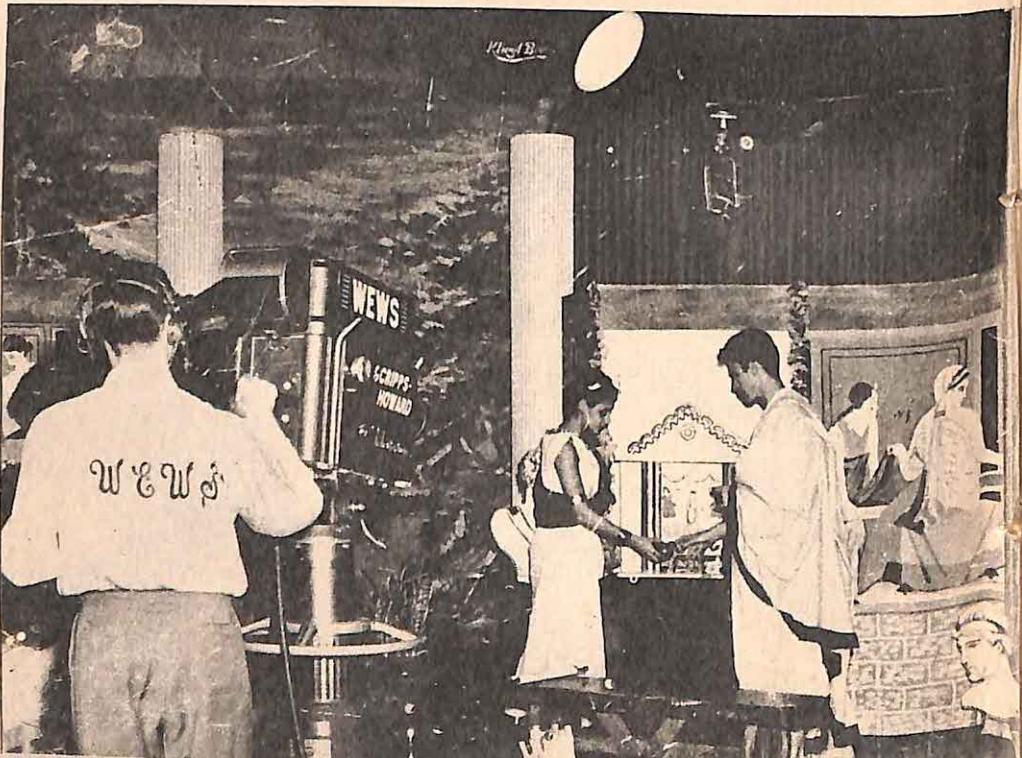


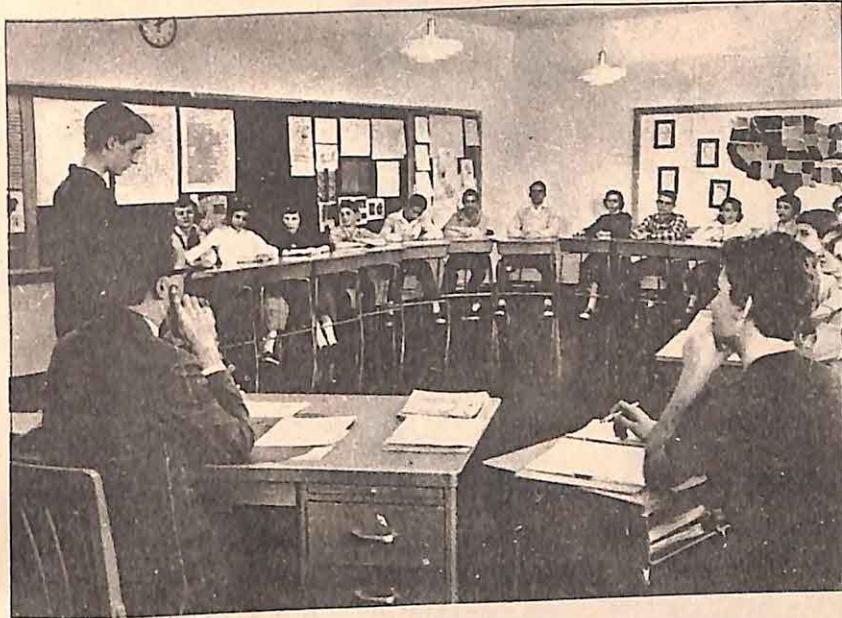
Amherst Central High School, Snyder, N. Y.



The Modern Secondary School

Bureau of Visual Education, Cleveland Public Schools





Is Interested in the Whole Individual

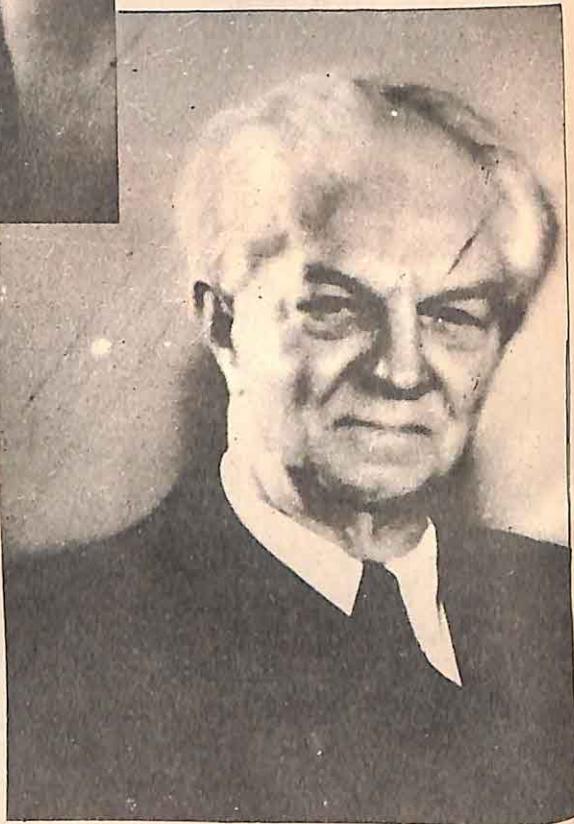
A. Vernon Davis, *The Morning Herald*, Hagerstown, Md.





Photo by Ira Hill

Fabian Bachrach



*The modern
secondary school
has evolved
through the work*

*of such master teachers as Dr. Ruth Strang, known for her
extensive writing and her training of school counselors, and
Dr. William Heard Kilpatrick, known for his outstanding
contributions to educational philosophy.*

reational and social programs. Some theorists are opposed to any differentiation in types of school activities; to them all school is life, and whatever constitutes life activity should be included in regular classroom learning. Other educators stress the social value of student participation in out-of-class projects; they believe that the following educational purposes are served by well-organized programs:

1. Discovery and development of individual interests and abilities
2. Motivation of learning
3. Curriculum enrichment
4. Improvement of teacher-pupil relationships
5. Encouragement of co-operative attitudes and good sportsmanship
6. Preparation for citizenship responsibilities

Most students regard participation in out-of-class activities as an important phase of secondary-school life. In every school, however, there are young people whose attitudes toward extracurricular projects differ from those of the majority. Some are so concerned with achieving success in their studies that they are unwilling to "waste time" socializing with their schoolmates. Others either have after-school home or work responsibilities or enjoy a satisfying social life outside the school.

AREAS OF EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES

The data available for the early years of the present century indicate that little attention was given then to programs of extracurricular activities, except for interscholastic athletics and, to a lesser degree, music, dramatics, and debating. Participation in sports was relatively popular among the general student body; usually only those young people whose scholastic achievement was high and who were planning to continue their education in college formed nonathletic groups. After about 1910, interest in the formation of extraclass student groups increased. At present, more than a hundred different types of activity groups can be listed.¹

¹ See Tompkins, Ellsworth, "Extraclass Activities for All Pupils," Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1950. Also Frederick, Robert W., *The Third Curriculum*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1959, pp. 429-435.

Schools differ in the kinds of activities considered to be extraclass. Dramatics, journalism, laboratory experimentation, or sports may be included in the curriculum in one school and may be co-curricular in another. In many secondary schools, students participate in programs and projects associated with homeroom periods; assemblies; office, library, and classroom routine; the general management of school discipline, including dismissals; and cafeteria procedures. The activities of the homeroom are discussed in Chapter 16. Other areas of extraclass activities are described here briefly.

The School Assembly In the past, school assemblies were conducted by the school principal or his assistant. Too often, much of the assembly period was devoted to giving notices, explaining school rules and regulations, and scolding. The modern trend is toward having the programs conducted by students.

Value of assembly Most individuals have many opportunities for getting together in large groups. They attend motion pictures, dramatic and musical programs, lectures, and meetings dealing with important political, social, and economic issues. In a large city especially, a person must learn to select wisely among the many opportunities available. And he must learn to be a co-operative group member. Prompt arrival and quiet demeanor during the program on the part of everyone present are essential to the successful conduct of the meeting. All these attitudes can be developed through the assembly, especially if the boys and girls play an active role in it.

Types of Programs The assembly period usually begins with the Salute to the Flag and the singing of "The Star-Spangled Banner," continues with a reading from the Scriptures (where this is permitted by state law), and follows through with whatever the program for the day may be.

The school assembly covers many phases of school life—student-council nominations, sports boosting, career talks, honors awards, stunts, dramatizations, debates, music and dance programs, orientation programs, art exhibitions, panel discussions—these are but a few of the many forms that the assembly

program can take.² Each spring, in one high school, a committee of student leaders and faculty members plans the assembly programs for the next school year and sets up the machinery for their production. This procedure is duplicated in many other schools throughout the country.

Occasionally the principal, other members of the faculty, or citizens of the community participate in the programs. If community leaders are invited to address the assembly group, they must be certain that what they say is (1) geared to the pupils' ability to comprehend, (2) short and to the point, and (3) presented in such a way, perhaps with the aid of an amplifying system, that it can be heard by everyone in the room.

Student Citizenship Activities Preparation for citizenship responsibilities generally is recognized to be an extremely important curriculum area. Not only do young people need to understand and appreciate the principles of democratic living but they must be able and willing to apply them. Hence classroom study is enlivened by guided practice both in and out of regular class situations. In an increasing number of secondary schools, opportunities are afforded the students to participate in the management of school affairs.

Student participation in school government and management Adolescents like to organize, to assume responsibility, and to serve others, but they usually want to do these things *in their own way*. This attitude may give rise to problems associated with the organization of a school's student council. Sometimes, impulsive young people are unreliable in their choice of projects. For example, one president of a student council claimed that he would have a swimming pool installed in the school; another asserted that during her presidency, the teachers would visit all students who were absent from school because of illness. Since adolescents are too immature to assume complete control of their own affairs, most schools have a student-faculty council, including at least one teacher. A student government organization that excludes the faculty rarely is successful.

² For a comprehensive list of assembly programs see Frederic, R. W., *op. cit.*, pp. 311-316.

In addition, the principal is responsible for the management of his school and must reserve the right to veto student-proposed projects that would interfere with school regulations.

A smoothly running and effective student-faculty organization includes the entire school population. The most common form of organization is developed in somewhat the following manner:

1. Each homeroom class elects a student representative to the council. The representatives elect one of their members for each grade, to serve on a governing board.
2. Nominations for officers—president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer—are made by the governing board or by the class representatives. If the two-or-more party system is in operation, class representatives make the nomination.
3. Candidacy is open either to all pupils or to those who have signified their interest in the organization by paying dues. The amount of dues usually is small, ranging from five to twenty-five cents per term. If an interested pupil is unable to pay dues, the faculty sponsor can arrange for him to meet his obligation by performing some special service.
4. The student council consists of the regularly elected officers, class representatives, faculty members, and representatives of the major student clubs or other groups.
5. The number of faculty members serving on the council depends on the size of the student body. The faculty members often are selected by the students themselves. In some schools, they are appointed by the principal on the basis of personal suitability for the position, individual interest, or the exigencies of the school schedule. Faculty members usually have a vote, but their function may be advisory only.
6. At regular meetings of the student board (made up of officers, faculty members, or a selected head adviser, and grade representatives) and of the council (made up of all class and student-activity group representatives) matters dealing with student welfare are discussed, reports of groups participating in school management are considered, and recommendations are made. Council action then is

reported to each homeroom group by its representative (usually during a homeroom period), the will of the group is expressed, and class suggestions or recommendations are submitted by the representative for consideration at the next council meeting.

Every pupil has the right to become an active citizen of his school community. The welfare of both students and faculty should be considered. Pupils should not be concerned only with individual benefits received from membership in the organization; they should be willing to serve the school through constructive, well-planned, and faithfully conducted activities.

Citizen activities of the student-teacher council A well-organized and effectively administered student council can sponsor many interesting and educationally profitable activities. Some projects are intended to serve the students themselves; others are planned to benefit the community. Included among such services are these:

1. Planning orientation programs for newly admitted pupils
2. Maintaining a lost-and-found service
3. Preparing and presenting appropriate assembly programs
4. Arranging school outings, dances, and other social events
5. Maintaining a book exchange for students' use
6. Organizing a safety council
7. Conducting campaigns for the protection and beautification of the school building and grounds
8. Sponsoring pep rallies for athletic events
9. Tutoring those who, because of illness or other valid reason, fall behind in their studies
10. Serving as lunchroom aides, safety patrols, and corridor guards
11. Assisting with the school bank
12. Planning visits of student groups to places of interest in the community
13. Conducting special programs for parents and other community members
14. Conducting community surveys for the benefit of students and the community
15. Conducting student courts

No matter how great their interest, students are too inexperienced to conduct these activities without adult assistance. As teachers and students together plan an activity, discuss possible procedures, and report on progress, young people gain considerable citizenship training. They discover their limitations and learn to work co-operatively with peer and adult groups.

Perhaps one of the most challenging projects is the student court. In some schools it is customary to assign to the student-faculty council the responsibility of sharing in the consideration and treatment of school offenders in matters that deal with pupil welfare and obedience to school regulations. Many difficulties are encountered by those schools in which students are given disciplinary responsibilities. It is true that under wise teacher guidance, the members of the court receive training in court procedures and in evaluation of individual offenses. Students cannot be given authority to impose any but mild penalties, however. The main value of these courts lies in the influence which they exert over students who may need guidance toward the development of desirable school spirit and social attitudes. Penalties imposed by a student court are often much more effective than penalties imposed by teachers.

Interest Clubs An interest club can satisfy an adolescent's urge to belong, to work with like-minded young people, and to contribute to the welfare of the school. All types and varieties of clubs can be found in secondary schools. Each subject department usually sponsors one or more clubs related to its particular interest area. Ideally, every pupil should belong to at least one club in his field of interest. A club should be relatively small, so that every member can benefit from participation in its activities. Under the indirect leadership of a teacher-sponsor, it can engage in a well-organized program of activities that will be of value both to its members and to the entire student body.

A club should not be organized until there appears to be a definite need for its existence, and it should not be continued

³ For a detailed list of school clubs, see Franklin A. Miller, *et al.*, *Planning Student Activities*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1956, pp. 270-334.

after student interest has waned. Too many clubs die of their own weight.

Most school clubs are faced with the problem of arranging a satisfactory schedule of meetings. Clubs sometimes compete for the most desirable meeting times. The problem becomes especially difficult if several interesting clubs which students wish to join are scheduled for the same day and hour.

Club membership Closely related to the problem of scheduling is the fact that in every school there are young people who are extremely interested in most club activities. These pupils need to be restricted to participation in a reasonable number of clubs. Other pupils consistently refuse to join any group or club. Some secondary schools are experimenting with various approaches to meet the problem of the nonjoiner. They have tried scheduling one period a week, usually the last period on Friday afternoon, as the regular meeting time for all clubs. This procedure is a boon for the teacher. Interested as he may be in pupil activities, he may find that sponsoring a club after regular school hours can become a chore. School time assigned to club programs relieves the teacher of a prolonged school day and can stimulate club participation among those pupils who must leave school promptly.

Another solution is to merge curricular and co-curricular activities in an experience program. Pleasurable learning takes place in experiences programs. Teacher guidance, courage in facing ideas, courage to create, courage in worthwhile activities in which they are interested. The conventional schedule of five or six forty-five minute recitation periods is changed to two or three longer periods, and greater freedom of pupil activity is allowed. The results compensate for the programming difficulties encountered. In most schools, however, interest clubs meet either before or after regular school hours.

School Publications Most adolescents enjoy talking and writing about themselves and the experiences they share with their associates, and many of them engage in imaginative writing. Hence secondary-school pupils are keenly interested in school publications.

Kinds of publications Publications usually found in secondary schools are the school newspaper, yearbook, magazine, and handbook. The handbook includes information about school organization and administration, curriculums, out-of-class activities, and other matters that help pupils learn about their school. The preparation of the handbook involves the joint efforts of administrative officers, teachers, and students.

The other three publications—the newspaper, the annual, and the literary magazine—can become excellent media for developing among the pupils interest in the school and loyalty to it. The newspaper, especially, is the organ of pupil activity and opinion. Young people usually are interested in producing, contributing to, and reading their weekly or biweekly newspaper. The amount of pupil training needed and the time consumed in producing an interesting and well-written paper are tremendous, however. For this reason, classes in journalism are being conducted in an increasing number of schools.

Relation of publications to the curriculum Boys and girls who show superior writing ability are given special training in journalism classes. Selected members of these classes then are permitted to serve on the editorial staff of the school newspaper or school magazine. From this point on, procedures vary in different schools. In some, the actual work of editing the newspaper becomes an out-of-class activity under the sponsorship of an English teacher and an art teacher. In others, the production of the publications is undertaken in advanced journalism classes, but even in these schools, the amount of work to be done after school hours is heavy. Pride in achievement seems to compensate those who take care of the many details of production, especially if the school publication earns commendation from community agencies.

Athletic Activities As was noted earlier in the chapter, sports and interschool contests were among the earliest forms of extra-class programs in secondary schools. Such projects have increased in number and variety, sometimes at the expense of other activities.

Important factors The school sports program is one of the most popular forms of pupil activity. The school athlete often is a school hero, regardless of his personal qualities or his general school status. Success in extramural sports events generally is a great stimulator of school loyalty, not only among the pupils themselves but also among the alumni and the general public. Extramural games, especially football and basketball, are spectacular school activities in which every teen-age boy yearns to participate.

This adolescent urge is a source of much anxiety both to parents and to school people. There is danger of injuries; also to be considered is the time taken from regular class activities for practice and participation; team members may lack the desire or ability to keep up with regular school work; great demands are made on the time and energy of the faculty; there is a problem of finance connected with equipment, travel, and admission fees; and, last but not least, individual or group pressures may result in a game being "thrown" or in other dishonest practices.

Value to pupils Participation in carefully organized and well supervised sports events has educational value. The subordination of personal interest to that of the team, the training in co-operation, and the health practices needed for keeping fit are excellent means of furthering adolescent growth. Unfortunately, in schools which emphasize interschool games and other forms of athletic competition, too few pupils are privileged to participate. In some schools, greater emphasis is given to many forms of intramural sports events, which offer to all physically able pupils an opportunity to benefit from participation. If the intramural sports activities are graded to meet developing needs; a young person can be stimulated to succeed in them. He then may go on to participate in interschool games or community-sponsored athletic programs that include events geared to the various stages of his development and training.

Attitudes toward athletic activities Athletic coaches, interested alumni, and the students themselves sometimes place too great emphasis on athletic activities. The development of

good health, strong, vigorous bodies, and ideals of good sportsmanship is important during the adolescent years. But the secondary school is responsible for the mental as well as for the physical development of its pupils. Hence athletic programs should not be permitted to interfere unduly with academic progress. Some educators decry the great emphasis some schools place on athletic activities; they would eliminate or reduce to a minimum any participation in either extramural or intramural athletic contests. This probably is an extreme point of view. A middle ground is needed.

Some school people, instead of stressing such sports as football and basketball, stress the development of skill in activities that can be engaged in throughout most of an individual's adult life. Social dancing is encouraged, as well as participation in such sports as golf and tennis, although the more strenuous sports are not completely neglected. At the same time, provision is made for the developing interests of academic-minded students through contests in the fields of science, mathematics, and English composition, for example.

ADMINISTRATION OF OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES

The success of a school's program of co-curricular and extra-curricular activities depends on a spirit of intelligent and sincere co-operation among all persons associated with the school—administrators and teachers, as well as the students themselves. Interest in a particular project is not enough to assure its survival. Careful attention to all the details of organization, as well as proper conduct of the activity, is an obligation shared by everyone connected with the school.

Authority and Sponsorship The principal is responsible for whatever takes place in his school. He is responsible to his superior officers and to the community for carrying out accepted educational policies and school regulations. He is also responsible to parents for the welfare of their children, who are his charges during the school day. Consequently, whatever is done in a student activity must be done with his approval.

The democratic school head gives consideration to suggestions

made by teachers and students in matters dealing with the advancement of student interest and well-being. He does not have a closed mind toward the introduction of student-initiated projects that seem to be reasonable and that can be carried on with available facilities. The principal usually delegates his authority in matters dealing with extra-instructional affairs to interested members of the teaching staff, who in turn share their responsibilities with qualified pupils.

Teachers differ in their ability to sponsor student activities. Some well-intentioned and interested teachers seem to lack ability to work co-operatively with young people in these informal relations. A teacher may want to direct activity rather than to guide indirectly. He may have little or no ability to manage details. Theoretically, the administration of these details is the responsibility of the students themselves, but more often than not, young people need to be reminded, prodded, or commanded to give attention to them. In many instances, the teacher-sponsor himself is forced to do the job. Young people must learn to carry their share of responsibility for completing a project. Training in doing this can be given by the effective teacher-sponsor.

The success of out-of-class student activities depends on the extent to which the following principles operate:

1. The student activity is guided by a well-qualified teacher-sponsor.
2. The teacher and students recognize that the activity is worthwhile.
3. The activity is closely related to the educational objectives and curricular offerings of the school.
4. All students have an opportunity to join in the activity of their choice, but overparticipation is discouraged.
5. The student members of the group know and fulfill their individual responsibilities for the welfare of the group.
6. The purposes and ideals of the group are in keeping with the best interests of the school and of democratic living.
7. The attitude of the members of the groups toward one another is co-operative rather than competitive.
8. The time and energy devoted to the activity by the teacher-sponsor are not excessive.

9. The principal of the school assumes full responsibility for the conduct of the activity.

Financing Student Activities A student-activity program requires money for such things as stationery, equipment, insignia, and uniforms. The usual sources of revenue for student activities include

1. The proceeds of athletic events
2. Musical and dramatic or motion-picture performances and social programs
3. The sale of such items as candy, pennants, and school supplies
4. School bazaars
5. Student fees, assessments, and fines
6. Subsidies from the school board

Funds procured from the sale of tickets for athletic events, dramatic and musical productions, and similar programs should be sufficient to meet the expenses incurred in a particular activity. The entrance fee, however, may be so high that many pupils are barred from attendance, or the surplus may be so great that it is difficult to dispose of it. In many schools the net gain is contributed to a community philanthropic organization.

In an increasing number of schools, the method used for raising money for extra-class activities is the *activity card*. At the beginning of each year, every student purchases one of these cards, which automatically entitles him to participate in designated activities. Here, again, in order to cover a sufficient number of activities to make the card worthwhile, its cost may have to be so high as to prohibit its purchase by some of the students.

The individual clubs may also charge dues. In order to maintain an exclusive status, these dues may be inordinately high. Sometimes loyal alumni give outright gifts of money to their school or provide for such gifts in their wills. This source of money is not so readily available in secondary schools, however, as it is in colleges.

Out-of-class student activities comprise a very important educational medium. The American people willingly pay billions of dollars yearly for the support of our schools; practically all phases of education are more or less adequately provided for

except out-of-class student activities. Community subsidies for these projects would dignify them and give them the important educational status they deserve.

School policy determines the administration of student-activity funds. Under the decentralized system, common to many schools, each club or group raises its own funds and handles them as it pleases. Although there is training value in this procedure, there also are disadvantages. To allow a student to collect, keep, and disburse the money may be placing a responsibility upon him which he is not yet mature enough to meet. For the activity sponsor to take charge of the funds places still another burden upon an already overworked teacher.

A more desirable way of handling activity funds is to utilize a central depository, in which all groups deposit their funds, receive credit for them, and then draw upon their accounts. Where there is a school bank the responsibility of handling student-activity accounts can be shared by teachers and students. In schools with a commercial curriculum a member of the accounting staff usually is the school treasurer and students of accounting receive practical experience by acting as his assistants. In some of these schools, one qualification for the position of treasurer of the student council is that the boy or girl be an accounting major.

Qualifications for and Management of Membership It is common for student leaders to attempt to limit membership in their respective activity groups to outstanding pupils in the school. This practice is a matter of concern to school people, since every young person needs an opportunity to participate in out-of-class activities with his peers. Some groups should be organized so that any young person is eligible, regardless of his abilities. A few groups, such as mathematics, science, and writing clubs, are of necessity limited to those pupils who show particular interest and superior performance in the respective areas. Since leadership of a student activity is time consuming and requires the ability to earn the confidence of group members, it would be desirable that the posts of honor and responsibility be held by students with successful achievement in their school work and admirable personal qualities. Adolescents usually are intelligent in their selection of student leaders. Without much

teacher guidance they can be counted on to make generally wise choices.

To encourage pupil participation in out-of-class activities, some schools have set up systems of awards: pins, badges, medals, and so on. These insignia delight the heart of the younger adolescent. No pin or badge can be too large, no number of badges can be too great! As the teen-ager reaches the senior year of high school, he tends to prefer smaller pins and badges and to become more selective in his choice of an activity badge or medal. There is danger, however, in placing too much emphasis on the awarding of insignia for participation in activities. Some pupils join innumerable groups merely to collect insignia; they participate actively in none. A policy can be established whereby the inactive member is required to return his membership badge or pin. Although the awarding of group insignia still is a popular practice, the methods more generally used at present to credit student participation in out-of-class activities are the point system and a system of majors and minors.

In the point system, a certain point value is assigned to each type of participation. Highly responsible leadership posts, such as president of the student council or editor-in-chief of a school publication, are assigned the highest number of points. Members of interest clubs who have no special responsibilities receive one point. The points that can be earned by an individual student may be limited, so that overenthusiastic students are restrained from excessive participation in club activities.

According to the system of majors and minors, certain activities requiring much expenditure of time and energy are designated as *majors*, the others as *minors*. Membership in either major or minor activities is limited.

Participation in student activities, especially in sports, journalism, and dramatics, sometimes is limited by academic standing. If a pupil appears to be devoting so much of his interest and energy to out-of-class activities that his regular class work suffers, he may be suspended temporarily from such participation until he regains an acceptable status in his studies. In this connection, administrators, teachers, and students need to bear in mind that the chief purpose for an adolescent's attendance in a secondary school is to master appropriate curriculum materials.

Extracurricular programs are supplementary to this primary objective. Insofar as these activities can help him achieve good personal and social adjustment they are extremely valuable. otherwise, time is being wasted that could be used to advantage if it were devoted to more study, to meeting home responsibilities, or to participating in constructive out-of-school social and recreational projects.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Distinguish between curriculum and co-curriculum.
2. Discuss the value to adolescents of out-of-class activities.
3. List the student activities in which you engaged in secondary school. How valuable were they to you?
4. Plan a program of assemblies for a school year. Include programs that you think would be both profitable and enjoyable.
5. List the assembly programs in which you have participated during the past year. Describe the audience behavior for each of them.
6. How and to what extent did faculty members participate in student activities in the secondary school which you attended? What improvements, if any, can you suggest?
7. Describe the student-teacher government organization of a school with which you are acquainted. Evaluate the program.
8. What is your attitude toward student courts? Justify your opinion.
9. Of what value to you were the student publications in your secondary school?
10. Do you believe that school annuals should be discontinued? Why or why not?
11. Give the advantages and disadvantages of an extensive program of (1) extramural sports, (2) intramural sports.
12. Why should pupils not be allowed entire control of their out-of-class activities?
13. How were student-activity funds handled in your school? Evaluate the procedures used.
14. Discuss board of education subsidy of student activities. What controls might be needed?
15. List ways by which pupils can be encouraged to participate in student activities.
16. Give reasons for and against allotting school time for out-of-class activities.

17. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages to adolescents of having all student activities centered in curricular activities.
18. What is the value of awarding distinguishing insignia to members of activity organizations?
19. Discuss the point system and the major-minor system of recording participation in student activities. Which do you prefer? Why?

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Textbooks and Libraries

Adequate implementation of modern curriculums requires the provision of many textbooks, library facilities, and other learning aids.

SELECTING AND USING TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks need to be selected with utmost care. Critical attention should be given to their quality, since accuracy of information, objectivity of presentation, and recency of data are of paramount importance. Consideration should be given also to clarity of expression, size and spacing of type, color and quality of paper, and general appearance.

Value of Textbooks A pupil needs the experience of interpreting facts presented in written form and of understanding the author's ideas. He also requires practice in evaluating the information or point of view contained in a textbook. Secondary-school pupils usually are required to master one textbook in a course but they can learn to extend their research into other books and newspapers and periodicals to gain an understanding of the viewpoints of many writers. Of course, a basic understanding of one point of view is better than a superficial acquaintance with many. Pupils should be encouraged, however, to read several books on a given topic. When these are discussed in class, a skillful teacher can help pupils evaluate varying points of view.

The reading of printed material allows time for reflection and evaluation. According to Dr. Austin McCaffrey, Executive Secretary of the American Textbook Publishers Institute,

A student can find the specific information he needs in a book without listening to extraneous material that comes before or after it. He can

review material he has read from time to time to clear up uncertainties, while skipping over the parts that are already clear. He can move ahead as quickly or as methodically as his individual capacities for comprehension permit. He can check facts and secure opinions from several sources and develop his ability to form critical judgments.¹

A textbook has teaching and learning value because it does the following:

1. Serves as an outline for the general content of a course
2. Provides pupils and teachers with the basic subject matter of the course
3. Helps all learners get a point of view for discussion
4. Is a point of departure for supplementary study
5. Helps pupils organize their work
6. Is excellent for review
7. Allows for experience in interpreting the printed page
8. Stimulates further reading

Misuse of textbooks Textbooks carelessly selected, so that they do not fit the needs of the pupils, can do more harm than good. So can slavish dependence on a text—it is the *beginning* of thinking in a course of study, not the beginning, middle, and end. Used best, the good textbook frees teacher and pupils to think.

One difficulty arises in those public schools which provide basic textbooks without charge to the pupils. Since other educational materials and buildings have become very expensive and so have caused budget difficulties, it is customary in most schools to use textbooks as long as they will hold together. This situation poses a problem: either the learners study outdated materials or the teacher himself must substitute newer facts and points of view for those presented in the regular textbooks. Next to the teacher and the pupil, the basic textbook is the most important single element in the teaching-learning situation; yet less than one per cent of the money spent on education goes for the purchase of text materials. To spend thousands—often millions—of dollars on buildings and personnel, as is appropriate,

¹ From an address given at the American Association of School Administrators Convention at Atlantic City, 1959.

and then to place less than the best available texts in the hands of the learners to save a few dollars is practicing false economy.

Textbook Selection Since the modern secondary school includes in its pupil population individuals who differ greatly in their ability to gain ideas from the printed page, it is imperative that textbook materials be adapted to meet the problems posed by individual differences. The same basic textbook cannot and should not be used for all the learners in any subject-matter area.

The selection of textbooks is governed by state law, but state departments of education vary in the amount of authority they exercise. The state department may select textbooks for state-wide use, local authorities may select texts from lists of titles approved by the state department, or local school officials may be delegated the authority to select their own textbooks without reference to the state department of education. In some states, elementary-school textbooks are selected by the state authority, but the right to select secondary-school books is delegated to local school authorities. State adoption may be the rule for textbooks in required subjects, and local adoption for texts used in elective subjects. Using one text throughout the state has its advantages and disadvantages. Reduced cost and ease of transfer of pupils using the same textbooks from one school to another within the state are arguments in favor of uniformity. The educational needs of a particular locality and the difficulty of securing competent state personnel for the selection committee are arguments against state uniformity.

Textbook committees at work The responsibility for selecting textbooks on either a state or a local basis is delegated to committees of administrators, supervisors, and teachers in a particular subject area. As committees evaluate available textbooks in various areas of secondary-school study, they ask questions such as these:

1. Is the content factually correct?
2. If the book deals with controversial issues, are all points of view presented objectively and given equal consideration?
3. Is the book free from prejudice?

4. Does the book fit the content requirements of the course of study in which it is to be used?

Textbook committees approach their work in a variety of ways. Some of the possible steps in a state in which adoption of textbooks is a responsibility of the local school district and in which the curriculum is organized according to subject fields are these:

1. Discussion of purposes of teaching the subject at this grade level
2. Agreement on the general type of text or texts needed for learning in this area
3. Requests to publishers for sample copies of texts meeting this general description
4. Preliminary examination and selection of a few texts for more intensive examination
5. Purchase of sets of three or four different texts for trial use in representative classrooms
6. Use of rating scale, if desired by committee
7. Committee recommendation, submitted through supervisors and administrators, for adoption by the Board of Education

Many variations of this pattern are practiced; when textbooks are adopted on a state-wide basis, certain variations become necessary.

Guides and check lists may help the committee arrive at objective decisions. A check list used on occasions by some of the social studies committees of the Cleveland Public Schools is reproduced here.

GENERAL PLAN OF EVALUATION SHEET USED IN THE STUDY OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEXTBOOKS

Total Possible Score	10,000 points
I. Mechanical Make-up (1,000 points)	
A. Appearance and durability of cover	e* × 30
B. Quality of paper	e* × 20
C. Legibility—size and clearness of type	e* × 30
D. General make-up—attractiveness	e* × 20
II. Language and Style (2,500 to 3,500 points)	
A. Adaptability to reading level of pupils	e* × (175-250)

1. Vocabulary
2. Sentence length and structure
(Use of Dale-Chall Formula to secure measure of readability)
- B. Ability to capture and hold interest of pupils $e^* \times (75-100)$

III. Content (3,500 to 5,000 points)

- A. Adaptability, suitability, and relative emphasis on material with respect to its providing content consistent with the general plan of social studies instruction in the Cleveland Public Schools (2,000 to 3,000 points)

Sub-headings determined by the nature of the course under consideration

B. Treatment of Material (1,500 to 2,000 points)

1. Authenticity of facts—freedom from error $e^* \times 35$
2. Freedom from bias—balance in presentation $e^* \times 35$
3. Development of concepts, trends, general principles $e^* \times 35$
4. Relation of content to pupils' experiences (past to present, remote to near, etc.) $e^* \times 35$
5. Emphasis on cause-effect relationships $e^* \times 35$
6. Organizational continuity (freedom from scattered assignments) $e^* \times 25$

IV. Special Aids to Learning and Teaching (1,500 to 2,000 points)

A. Learning Aids (1,000 to 1,500 points)

1. Aids to the location of information contained in the book
 - a. Table to contents, lists of maps and illustrations $e^* \times 10$
 - b. Index—extent, method of listing, aids to pronunciation $e^* \times 10$
2. Glossary and appendices $e^* \times 20$
3. Aids in the interpretation of textual content

a. Illustrations (Number, quality, placement)	e* × 50
b. Maps	e* × 30
c. Graphs, tables, charts	e* × 20
B. Teaching Aids (300 to 500 points)	
1. Overviews, summaries, reviews	e* × 20
2. Projects, exercises, questions	e* × 20
3. References and supplementary readings, appropriate moving pictures, etc.	e* × 10
V. Price (100 points)	e* × 10

e* indicates evaluation rating generally indicated by some number between 0 and 10.

USE OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

Although a well-selected textbook can serve admirably as the basic source of content, no one book can include all the details worthy of consideration. Moreover, no matter how objective and complete a text may be, it is likely that one point of view and certain aspects of subject matter are stressed more than others. Breadth and depth of understanding are implemented by utilization of supplementary reading materials which the library makes easily available.

During recent years, up-to-date books, pamphlets, magazines, and newspapers have vitalized interest in education, and the sale of printed material is steadily increasing. Contrary to expectations, radio, television, and motion pictures programs are not greatly interfering with the reading habits of the American people.

Modern Library Services One result of our interest in reading is the rapid growth of public libraries. Relatively well-equipped public libraries can be found in all states. In addition, there have been provided throughout the country auxiliary services, such as bookmobiles or traveling libraries. The establishing and maintaining of appropriate library services should be, and is coming to be, financed by public funds. Adequate building

space, worthwhile publications, and trained librarians cost money, but they are as much a part of good education as school buildings, teaching personnel, basic texts, and other learning aids.

At present, every state is accepting, in part, the responsibility for appropriating funds for libraries that can meet its citizens' educational interests. There are three categories of publicly supported libraries: of the local community, of schools and colleges, and of governmental agencies. Unfortunately, in spite of the rapid expansion of library services, many states have not yet adapted their methods of control and organization to meet adequately a greatly increased demand for their services.

The library is more than a room with books in it; a whole program of service is offered. The librarian calls the teachers' attention to available materials, compiles bibliographies for specific needs, stimulates reading by displays and exhibits, directs orientation of new pupils in the use of the library, gives group and individual instruction in the use of books in the library, participates in curriculum studies, co-operates in the development of good study habits of pupils, promotes desirable social attitudes, encourages good work habits, and helps develop skill in the use of materials.

Use of library facilities by the pupils, the faculty, and the parents is a concern of all school authorities. Many states require that the use of the library be taught to the pupils in the school. Some states suggest that the teachers make use of the library during the regular school hours; one state recommends that the use of the library not be limited to the scheduled periods of the pupils. Some states suggest minimum standards for library services; these standards are in the form of recommendations, however, rather than requirements. Stress is placed on the functions and services rather than on the number of books on the shelf.

Library Services Act, 1956 This Act was passed by Congress to promote the further development of public library service in rural areas. The Act authorizes an appropriation of \$7,500,000 annually for five years (starting with fiscal 1957) for grants to states for the extension and improvement of rural

public library service. (A rural area is defined as any place of 10,000 population or less, according to the latest United States census.) Funds under approved state plans may be used for salaries, books and other library materials, library equipment, and other operating expenses, but not for buildings or land. The funds are allocated to the states on the basis of their rural population and are matched by the states on the basis of their per capita income. Funds may be utilized by urban libraries to extend service to rural areas. The United States Commissioner of Education is authorized to make studies, investigations, and reports of the values, methods, and results of the various state provisions under the Act.²

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

Adolescents should be encouraged to develop the habit of going to the library for individual or group research, cultural improvement, and literary appreciation. A well-equipped library is a valuable aid to instruction.

Local boards of education are responsible for financing, housing, staffing, and providing library services in secondary schools, though considerable power to establish regulations for local school libraries is lodged in state boards of education or the State Commissioner of Education. Since the school library is regarded as a component part of the school, it can become an effective aid to learning.

Administrative Responsibility for School Libraries According to an analysis of recent annual and biennial reports, state departments of education have the following responsibilities to public school libraries:

To stimulate the development and improvement of school library service in elementary and secondary schools throughout the State.

To establish qualitative and quantitative standards for school library service.

² See *State Plans under the Library Services Act*, Supplement 1, Bulletin 1959, No. 17, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1959, p. 82.

To provide consultative service on school library problems to legislators, school librarians, teachers, administrators, and individuals.

To provide consultative services and furnish materials on curriculum development and courses of study to groups at State and local levels.

To establish standards for and grant certificates to school librarians.

To cooperate with teacher training and library training agencies on programs of library education for school librarians, teachers, and administrators.

To conduct and otherwise participate in in-service conferences and workshops for school librarians as a group and also together with administrators, supervisors, and teachers.

To collect, compile, interpret, and publish significant statistics on school libraries, and to integrate these statistics with those collected at the national level.

To advise and provide leadership to librarians, parents, and teacher groups on book selection and standards for book collections by means of consultative service, booklists, reviews, exhibits, and book talks.

To administer special State funds for school libraries, when such funds exist.

To give advice and assistance to local school authorities on planning library quarters for the school plant.

To accredit schools.

To assist national and regional accrediting agencies in the evaluation of programs of school library training agencies and school library services within the State.

To issue newsletters, manuals, and aids for school librarians.

To conduct and participate in research studies and surveys involving school libraries.

To conduct a clearinghouse for sharing up-to-date information on new developments in library science.

To provide demonstrations of improved library methods and procedures.

To participate in national, State, and local conferences, meetings, and committee work involving school library problems.

To advise with lay groups and individuals regarding the development of school libraries, home libraries, and programs of home reading.

To maintain liaison with professional groups and associations at the national, State, and local levels on matters regarding school libraries.

To cooperate with other library agencies of the State, both public

and private, in order to strengthen the services available to school libraries.³

Utilization of the School Library The secondary-school library is an important educational aid. Scholarly attitudes are strengthened as the pupils learn how to use it. A developing thirst for knowledge can be satisfied through hours spent in the library rooms. The library can become the center of school life and a service agency for the graduates of the school.

The American Association of School Librarians, in its Bill of Rights, holds this to be the responsibility of the school library:

To provide materials that will enrich and support the curriculum, taking into consideration the varied interests, abilities, and maturity levels of the pupils served

To provide materials that will stimulate growth in factual knowledge, literary appreciation, aesthetic values, and ethical standards

To provide a background of information which will enable pupils to make intelligent judgments in their daily life

To provide materials on opposing sides of controversial issues so that young citizens may develop under guidance the practice of critical reading and thinking

To provide materials representative of the many religious, ethnic, and cultural groups and their contributions to our American heritage

To place principle above personal opinion and reason above prejudice in the selection of materials of the highest quality in order to assure a comprehensive collection appropriate for the users of the library.⁴

A well-equipped library contains pertinent and up-to-date books, pamphlets, magazines, newspapers, maps and other visual aids. Money available for library books and periodicals should be spent with discrimination. A committee of teachers, the principal, and the librarian select the books and other publications needed to supplement or replace those that already are available. The recreational value of reading material cannot be overlooked; the library should include a variety of materials for adolescents to read for leisure-time enjoyment.

³ F. F. Beach, *et al.*, *The State and Publicly Supported Libraries*, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., p. 14.

⁴ "School Library Bill of Rights," *School Life*, Vol. 42, No. 8, April, 1960, p. 2.

If pupils are to utilize the library facilities intelligently, they need to know how to consult the card index, where to locate books, and how to withdraw and return them. Most schools offer training in library techniques during assigned periods in the library rooms under the supervision of classroom teachers and the librarian. In some schools library books are brought to classrooms for special study or research.

A teacher who meets all of his classes in the same room can build a subject library of his own. Sometimes a group of teachers in the same subject area co-operate in providing a special library, which is kept in a classroom convenient to all members of the group and shared by them. Either of these procedures is costly, however, and is not common.

The library staff Most secondary schools can afford the services of only one librarian, who is assisted in her work by student aides. Some of the larger schools have a head or chief librarian and one or more assistant librarians. The primary function of the library personnel is to keep materials correctly catalogued and ready for use. Secondary-school librarians can encourage young people to develop wholesome reading interests. They can assist individual pupils and classes in carrying on research projects.

The librarian is more than a clerk at a desk; she is a professional worker possessing special interests and training. The position of school librarian requires the completion of an appropriate college course of study.⁵ Those secondary schools in which there is an organized program of guidance services usually include the librarian among the members of the guidance personnel.

The teacher and library service A school may have an excellently equipped and organized library and the services of a well-trained librarian, but the adequacy with which it serves its functions depends on the attitudes of the teaching staff toward its utilization. The extent to which the library has value as an educational aid varies, of course, with the area of instruction; yet, even teachers of the same subject differ in their use of avail-

⁵ See Mary H. Mahar, *Certification of School Librarians*, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1958.

able library facilities. The results of a recent study of library services by the NEA Research Division indicate the following:

Virtually all, 99 percent, of the teachers in urban secondary schools are teaching in schools that have central libraries.

Secondary-school teachers are almost unanimous in the belief that learning how to use various library resources should be a fundamental part of the education of all boys and girls, and a substantial majority of teachers believe that they have a personal responsibility for helping to develop library skills.

A majority of secondary schools have well-organized programs for developing student skill in the use of library materials.

A majority of teachers recognize library services as either essential or important to effective teaching in their subject areas.

Teachers of the various subjects appear to be divided into three rather distinct groups according to the extent to which they utilize library services.

The school library today not only serves the curriculum needs of students and teachers, but it also provides materials for the professional growth of teachers.⁶

As could be expected, library materials are used extensively by teachers of English, with social study teachers and science teachers in second and third places, respectively. Relatively few teachers of business education consider library materials essential or important as teaching aids.

The interest in education for modern living on the part of both teachers and students is creating a greater demand by both groups for more and better reading materials. Teachers want to keep abreast of the times. They want to know what is happening so that they are better prepared to share up-to-the-minute information with their students. Secondary-school pupils also recognize the importance of understanding present happenings and trends. Libraries that can provide adequate source materials for the teachers and learners are educational necessities.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Of what value to you were your secondary-school textbooks? Your college textbooks?

⁶ *Library Services*, NEA Research Bulletin, Vol. 36, No. 3, October, 1958, Research Division of the NEA, Washington, D.C., 1958, p. 76.

2. What are the proper uses of textbooks?
3. To what extent do you think you will rely on a textbook as a teacher?
4. Evaluate the policy of state adoption of textbooks in the secondary school.
5. Compare the values of local versus state selection of textbooks, provided that more than one textbook is approved for use in one subject.
6. To what extent should textbooks be supplied without charge to pupils?
7. As a teacher, why would you like to be permitted to select the textbook that you will use in a particular course?
8. Why should a teacher use more than one textbook in a course? What are the disadvantages of using more than one book?
9. As a college student, would you like to have your textbooks supplemented in any way? How?
10. Under what conditions should textbooks be changed?
11. Evaluate the role of the school library in the education of the secondary-school pupil.
12. Select a topic and indicate how you would work with the librarian in preparing it for class instruction.
13. How important are traveling libraries to rural areas?
14. What can be gained by keeping school libraries open on Saturdays? during the summer vacation?
15. What professional training should a person have in order to become a school librarian?
16. What advantages or disadvantages result from combining the library and the study hall?
17. What kind of behavior should prevail in the library?
18. Who should take the initiative in developing a workable plan of co-operation—the class teacher or the librarian? Explain.

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Audio-Visual Aids

Today such aids as pictures, photographs, maps, globes, recording equipment, motion-picture apparatus, slides, filmstrips, and radio and television sets are used in classes. Some of these aids have visual appeal, some have auditory appeal, and some have both visual and auditory appeal. Later on in this chapter we shall consider the utilization of each of the three types of aids.

AVAILABILITY AND VALUE OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Modern educational philosophy encourages the use of many teaching-learning aids in addition to textbooks and supplementary reading materials. The extent to which this practice is followed in various schools and school systems depends on the availability of the materials and the school leaders' appreciation of their value.

Relative Availability of Audio-Visual Aids Audio-visual materials differ widely in their complexity and cost. Some, such as maps, globes, pictures, and—in many schools—phonographs and records, are included among regular school supplies and are easily available to each classroom teacher who needs them. They can be stored in the classroom and used by individual teachers during recitation periods.

Larger or more complex materials are so expensive that many schools cannot have them unless interested citizens present them as gifts. When radio and television sets and some other types of aids are acquired by a school, problems of storage and scheduling for use arise. The equipment is usually stored in a central place and made available to teachers and their classes as they

are needed. Teachers must schedule their use of these materials so that there is a fair distribution of allotted time.

Some school systems are building extensive film libraries. Local commercial radio and television networks co-operating with the schools include educational programs in their schedules. Some large school systems operate their own radio and television stations. Some school systems have a large supply of radio recordings and similar materials which are kept in a central depository and loaned to individual schools.

State departments are also assuming responsibility for providing audio-visual material. According to H. H. Cummings and H. K. Mackintosh, state departments have these responsibilities:

1. To organize a statewide distribution system to help all schools receive commercial films and filmstrips free and postpaid.
2. To organize libraries of audio-visual materials and to encourage the organization of such libraries.
3. To help teachers make a wider and better use of audio-visual materials in their classes.
4. To co-operate in the production of films, filmstrips, wire recordings, and radio programs to meet needs peculiar to the State.¹

Value of Audio-Visual Aids Studies have shown that learning is facilitated by the use of audio-visual aids. A study of the value of audio-visual aids conducted under the supervision of one of the writers revealed that a seventh-grade social studies group using audio-visual aids learned 15 per cent more than a comparable group which did not use audio-visual aids. In other studies it has been found that groups which used films rated between 10 and 35 per cent higher than similar groups which did not use films.²

Not only is there more initial learning through the use of audio-visual aids, but retention of what is learned is improved. In another study reported by James S. Kinder, the gains in re-

¹ H. H. Cummings and H. K. Mackintosh, *Curriculum Responsibilities of State Departments of Education*, No. 30, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1958, p. 58.

² See James S. Kinder, *Audio-visual Materials and Techniques*, 2nd ed., American Book Company, New York, 1959, p. 13.

tention through the use of audio-visual aids were: for 5th grade, 14%; for 7th grade, 23%; for junior high school, 38%.³

Audio-visual aids improve retention of what is learned, since impressions of form, size, color, or other features of the object under study are intensified. Seeing a caisson or a rocket is more valuable to the learner than reading about it or hearing someone talk about it. Listening to a radio broadcast of a baseball game is interesting; seeing it on television is more revealing; but attending the game is the most enriching experience of all. A vicarious experience through audio-visual aids certainly cannot take the place of actual experience, but it can lead to correct impressions, even though it does not give completely adequate emotional satisfaction.

Supplementary aids can be used successfully to motivate classroom work. Well-selected pictures on the bulletin board; radio recordings, or short filmstrips effectively arouse interest. One word of warning—extraneous factors connected with the aid should not be so exciting that they lead the thinking of the students into areas other than the one they are exploring.

Audio-visual materials have value for learners in that they help students to:

1. Gain correct percepts from the start and so avoid erroneous ideas
2. Increase sensory experiences in any learning area
3. Intensify impressions
4. Develop intellectual curiosity
5. Develop favorable attitudes toward learning
6. Enjoy the learning process

PRINCIPLES OF USE

Some adults who during their own school days did not have the opportunity to profit from the use of supplementary learning aids assume that these materials waste time and distract the pupils from the serious business of study. This is not so but, unless the teacher adheres to certain principles underlying the use of audio-visual aids, they may indeed interfere with learning rather than promote it. Although no aid can substitute for

³ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

teacher influence, audio-visual materials can supplement and complement teacher guidance of pupil learning.

No one type of method or material should be used to the exclusion of others.

Certain materials seem more appropriate than others for certain units of understanding, or in connection with certain objectives.

Too much material used at any one time may befog rather than clarify learning.

Preparation for the proper use of visual or other learning material must always be made.

The materials should be woven into lessons and teaching procedures; they are integral parts of the learning situation.

The pupil must be prepared and handled as an active participant.

The pupil must be held responsible for what goes on during the lesson. How best to do this cannot be laid down categorically. Some teachers have pupils answer prepared study guides; demonstrations and field trips may be written up; film showings may be followed by compositions, library research, discussions, creative art work, or a score of other activities.

On the whole, examples, specimens, or demonstrations should be positive rather than negative. There is always danger that the negative example will be mistaken for the positive.

The teacher should provide opportunities for language training, oral and written, to accompany perceptual experiencing.

Above all, materials should never be used haphazardly nor work periods allowed to become mere entertainment unless the objective is just that and nothing more. There are times for recreation and entertainment, of course.

Materials of instruction, teaching procedures, laws of learning, and the objectives of education must be co-ordinated and integrated.⁴

Adherence to the principles presented above will insure the gaining of more accurate impressions. The teacher is the key person in the application of these principles. The extent of the mental integration that takes place depends on the interest of the learner and the attitude and procedures of the teacher.

Teacher Procedures The teacher must be skillful in the use of audio-visual aids. He must direct attention to what is to be experienced so that correct impressions will be formed and de-

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 41-42.

sirable appreciations will accompany the learning. Since the quality of the thinking of the learner depends on the kind and amount of sensory stimulation, it is extremely important to provide the proper raw materials. If the learner receives accurate impressions, he is helped in the formulation of correct ideas or concepts.

Colleges are helping to prepare teachers to become expert in the use of radio, television, and motion pictures. For example, in 1959-60, New York University installed equipment for the first instructional television center to be opened in the United States. The project was sponsored by the University in collaboration with the Radio Corporation of America. The program includes teacher-training apprenticeships, institutes, and in-service workshops. The workshops have two sections, one concerned primarily with studio teaching and the other with the utilization of televised programs. In addition, seminars are conducted on the implications of television for curriculum administration, planning of buildings, and other educational activities. If this TV teaching project is successful, it can become the model for similar training programs elsewhere.

Parent-Teacher Co-operation Parents and teachers can co-operate to help children get the most from radio, television, and motion pictures. The following are a few suggestions to parents for promoting the proper use of these aids:

1. Keep informed about what the children see and hear.
2. Discuss desirable programs with the children.
3. Recognize young people's right sometimes to choose their own programs.
4. Aid them in setting up standards for evaluation.
5. Train them to adhere to a time schedule.
6. Encourage them to gain a variety of experiences.

These are some suggestions for teachers:

1. Specify certain programs in connection with regular class-work.
2. Keep up with significant radio, television, and motion-picture programs.
3. Invite class discussion on aspects of a program that apply to the topic under discussion.

4. Suggest programs that are interesting and important.
5. Make intelligent use of the school projector and radio and television sets.

TYPES AND SUGGESTED USES OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

As we noted earlier in the chapter, supplementary learning aids can be classified as visual aids, auditory aids, and audio-visual aids. We shall consider these three categories.

Visual Aids There are many types of visual aids that can be used profitably by a skillful teacher. Some of them, such as photographs, cartoons, graphs, charts, diagrams and maps, can be found in books, magazines, and newspapers. Chalkboard drawings are helpful, if they are executed neatly and accurately. Other visual aids are filmstrips, opaque projectors, slides, stereographic material, specimens, and models.

Photographs, posters, and cartoons Picture illustrations should be selected with a definite purpose in mind. When the picture is made visible to all members of the class it can become an excellent teaching device. If a picture cannot be seen by all the students in the room, it can be passed around or, better yet, projected on a screen. The teacher should use pictures to supplement textbook illustrations, since it is impossible to include in a textbook all the pictures that should be shown to a class.

Each teacher should assemble his own collection of pictures, posters, and cartoons. He might make it a class project to produce and assemble a collection of these aids and present them to the department. The art teacher usually has his own collection which he uses to illustrate the points that he wants his students to appreciate.

Teachers need training in the use of pictures, posters, and cartoons. These visual aids can help clarify ideas, if the teacher does the following:

1. Selects pictures that give correct images
2. Interprets the picture
3. Allows sufficient time for each learner to comprehend the meaning, yet is careful not to waste time

4. Uses only those pictures that are pertinent to the topic under discussion
5. Encourages students to supplement reports given in class with pictures, diagrams, or cartoons
6. Assigns pictures to selected students for special study and report

Maps, globes, charts, graphs, and diagrams Map or globe study can be effective in the orientation of students to locations of cities, countries, or specific spots on this planet. The student can use the map or globe to get a more complete concept of location, direction, relative size of continents, height of mountains, general topography, and the like. Other types of maps that can be used include weather maps, relief maps, road maps, and maps of the sky. The teacher also can make quick drawings of maps on the chalkboard to clarify his points. Through the study of maps and globes, pupils are enabled better to understand what is going on in different parts of the world.

Charts, graphs, and diagrams have value in that material can be presented objectively and accurately, with a minimum of words or lines, so that ideas are gained quickly and correctly.

Many modern textbooks contain good maps, charts, diagrams, and graphs. Pupils should be encouraged to follow them carefully as they read the explanatory material. It also is good practice for the teacher to trace a map or prepare a chart or diagram on the chalkboard during a class discussion. Some teachers prepare such materials on large sheets of cardboard ahead of time.

A helpful aid in the study of biology is transvision. Many textbooks contain transparent pages which show layers of composition of such things as plants, the human or animal body, or specific organic systems.

Some suggestions are given below for using maps, charts, graphs, and diagrams:

1. The impossibility of making an accurate flat map of the world should be made clear to the learner.
2. Differences should be indicated among the four types of flat maps: *political maps* (to indicate political boundaries as well as many geographical features, such as mountains,

rivers, deserts); *relief maps* (to indicate inequalities in elevation of the earth's surface); *pictorial-statistical maps* (pictures, drawings, photographs, dots, and isotypes used to indicate population, crops, products, and the like); *outline maps* (outlines to be filled in by pupils or teachers).

3. The construction of maps, charts, graphs or diagrams can be made a class project.
4. Each pupil should be given first-hand experience in using a globe.
5. *Important charts and graphs should be placed on durable material, so that they can be used again and again.*
6. *Detailed construction of charts, graphs, and diagrams should not be overemphasized.*

Filmstrips Filmstrips are still pictures that can be used in ways not possible with a motion picture. They are in the form of film rolls and stereopticon films. Filmstrips accompanied by disc records are useful; they can be run without sound if the teacher wants to emphasize a particular point or to do his own explaining. The equipment necessary for showing filmstrips is relatively inexpensive and simple to operate.

Objects, specimens, and models Cross-sectional views of machines or parts of machines and models of parts of the human body help to create an understanding that would be difficult to attain without the visual aid. Models in miniature or in enlarged forms often help the student understand the actual object better.

The following are some suggestions for the use of objects, specimens, and models:

1. Whenever possible, pupils should have direct experience with objects or specimens.
2. If only a single specimen is available, the lecture-demonstration technique should be used.
3. If a sufficient number of specimens are available, they should be studied individually by each member of the class.
4. The teacher should note differences between the model and the actual object.

The chalkboard Those who write on the chalkboard should make certain that the writing is large and legible enough to be read anywhere in the room. The chalkboard can be used by having a student place a summary of the lesson on the board as the lesson is developed in class. This is good training for the student and places the important points of the lesson before the class. Work placed on the chalkboard by a pupil can be evaluated by the teacher and the class, and needed assistance can be given to the individual as well as to the class as a whole. This procedure has value only if the corrections are made in such a way that they can be seen and understood by everyone. Some suggestions for using the chalkboard are these:

1. Check the lighting of the room to avoid reflected light on the board.
2. Keep chalkboards clean.
3. Use a chalkboard that can be seen by all pupils.
4. Have regular places for pupils to work at the chalkboard.
5. Train pupils to use the chalkboard when they make oral reports.
6. Insist on neatness.
7. Use student assistants to place an outline of the lesson on the chalkboard.
8. Illustrate important points by charts, graphs, or diagrams drawn on the chalkboard.

The bulletin board In the past a relatively small bulletin board was used in classrooms for important official notices. In the classrooms of a modern school building there is usually a large permanent bulletin board (made of cork or covered with magnetized material), sometimes extending the length of one wall. Although one portion of the board may be reserved for official notices to pupils, the rest of the space is available for appropriate learning aids: pictures, diagrams, charts, and other pertinent illustrations. The materials may be prepared by the teacher or may represent the work of interested pupils.

As a teaching-learning aid, the bulletin board has certain advantages over the chalkboard in that the materials can be kept up indefinitely, can be planned and arranged more accurately.

and can be used by the teacher with successive classes. Several cautions are needed, however. The materials should:

1. Stimulate learner interest
2. Be arranged in orderly and attractive fashion
3. Be brought to the attention of the pupils, not merely posted
4. Be removed from the board as soon as their usefulness as a teaching aid is ended

Opaque projector The opaque projector is a most handy and valuable visual aid to a teacher. It projects opaque material by use of reflected light and thus can be used to project a page from a book, a small map, or a picture on the chalkboard, the classroom wall, or a screen. Through its use teachers of science, social studies, and English can bring to the attention of the entire class material found in newspapers, magazines, or reference books.

Auditory Aids In the learning process, auditory stimulation is as important as visual stimulation. Auditory aids include such things as public-address systems, radios (school or commercial), phonographs, and tape or wire recorders.

School public-address system Many of the new school buildings have complete sound systems. Each classroom contains a receiver, so that a program or an announcement originating in a central place can be broadcast to the entire school. The public-address system can also be used so that communication is possible between the central sending unit and only one or a few classrooms. It then can be used as a medium for transmitting taped recordings or other auditory materials to those classes engaged in a project in which the use of such teaching-learning aids is appropriate.

In some schools the choice of what is to be heard is not the classroom teacher's; he must be prepared to receive whatever program is put on the central system. The system can be a great aid to the administration, but it can become a nuisance to the teacher. General announcements should be made over the public-address system only in accordance with a predetermined plan, except, of course, in emergencies. Some principals have been known to ask their teachers and classes to stand by for an an-

nouncement as often as ten or more times daily. No one will deny the right of a principal to make announcements to the school, but he also has an obligation to organize school routine so as to avoid interruption of classwork.

Students get valuable training through the use of a central sound system. If no one is permitted to use the central system until he is adequately trained, pupils will practice regularly in order to earn the right to use it. The system may be used as an outlet for dramatic expression and as a means of fostering school spirit. It is also a good medium for reaching parents through the pupils.

The radio Cleveland was the first city to undertake the use of radio in the schools on a large scale. During the school year, station WBOE operates daily from 8:00 A.M. to 4:00 P.M., broadcasting programs which are used to enrich and stimulate classroom experiences and activities and to give demonstration lessons.

Teachers cannot be expected to become proficient in the use of the radio until they have had some training and until the programs are scheduled at such times and are of such kind that they supplement what is going on in the classroom. When radio programs can be fitted effectively into curricular offerings, they become more valuable to teachers and learners.

If the greatest good is to be gained from a radio program, the class should be prepared for the listening experience. The teacher should have questions based on the content of the program, and should assist the class in taking notes during the program. After the program, the material should be summarized. If the main ideas are discussed by the entire group immediately after the program, the pupils will be better able to understand, to appreciate, and to remember what they have heard.

A good radio listener is able to sit still and listen carefully to what is broadcast. His attention must be active; otherwise he may miss an important idea or arrive at a wrong conclusion. There is great value in learning to sit, listen, and think, but active, energetic young people should not be expected to sit quietly too often or for too long a time.

Many administrative problems arise in connection with the use

of the radio. The set must be kept in good condition. The principal should know the cost of sets, the cost of repair, and the types of receivers that best serve his school and classroom needs.

Radio workshops The workshop idea has spread to many fields of study and has become a valuable outlet for adolescent energy and creativity. Many small radio broadcasting stations throughout the country co-operate with local schools in the presentation of student-planned and student-produced radio broadcasts. These programs are effective learning aids and can be excellent disseminators of information about the school.

Special values of the radio in education Without leaving the classroom, students are able to hear the details of political campaigns, important ceremonies, world conferences, history-making speeches. They learn the personalities and thoughts of famous and important people and are given a background for the understanding of controversial issues, as well as an outlook on world events in general. They hear acceptable speech and the varieties of expression. Through the appreciation of musical and dramatic presentations heard on radio, students come to broaden their knowledge and to feel motivated toward the wise use of leisure time. It is even possible that exposure to many areas of interest through hearing their famous representatives will provide guidance in the choice of a vocation.

Recordings Commercial radio companies make recordings to be transcribed over their stations at a later time. Many of these are available for school use. If a program is put on the air by school people, recordings can be made of it which later can be played on a recording machine and analyzed critically. By the use of this technique, English usage, voice quality, rate of speaking, and organization of ideas of individuals speaking extemporaneously over the radio can become the basis of instruction in speech classes.

Great care should be taken in selecting radio recordings for presentation to a class over a school radio or by phonograph. There is no excuse for a teacher's presenting to a class an unsuitable program. Every program should be previewed by the

teacher. If there is something in the radio recordings that is not pertinent to the discussion, it should be eliminated.

Phonograph records are valuable learning aids, especially in teaching music appreciation. Pupils are stimulated during the class period by the performance of instrumental artists. Preparatory discussions help the learners direct their attention to specific musical qualities, such as tone quality, rhythm, cadence, and theme.

Recording the voice and speaking habits of each learner is becoming a common practice as a means of improving speech. The effect on a learner of listening to his own voice is a greater motivator toward improvement than a teacher's attempt to convince him that he has certain speech difficulties. Tape-recording machines bring this practice within the reach of almost any school. Tapes can be used many times or preserved for future use.

Audio-Visual Aids Much of what has been said in the preceding pages about visual or auditory aids applies also to motion pictures, television programs, and field trips. Thus our discussion of these media can be brief.

The motion picture The value of films depends on their use as supplements to other teaching aids. They can aid a teacher, but can neither eliminate him entirely from the teaching-learning situation nor replace the textbook. The teacher needs training in the wise use of films. Indiscriminate use of the motion picture may hinder rather than assist the learning process.

A film should be selected for the purpose of teaching definite ideas. Some principles and practices that should be observed by the teacher are the following.

1. The teacher should preview the film before he presents it, to become acquainted with its length, content, and organization.
2. The teacher should ask the pupils to construct questions about the film, and he should supplement these with some of his own.
3. The teacher should know the features of the film that are to be emphasized in the lesson.
4. The pupils should be given related source material to read

in advance, so that they may become acquainted with the content of the picture.

5. The teacher should not interrupt the showing of the film with comments or questions.
6. The teacher should have the class discuss the picture as soon after its showing as possible. The details may be forgotten if there is a delay of even one day.
7. A second showing is helpful if time permits.
8. To ensure viewing with intention to recall, a test based on the film, class discussion, and related readings can be administered.

Television programs The utilization of television for educational purposes is still in the experimental stage. Some experimentation already has proved to be fruitful in spite of its high cost and difficulties of operation. Since the 1950's, television has been used by school systems, colleges and universities, and other educational institutions. One of the most elaborate experiments is being conducted by the schools of Hagerstown, Maryland, in co-operation with the Radio-Electronics-Television Manufacturers Association and subsidized in part by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. New York State also has undertaken an extensive television program for education.

In 1961, the Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction (MPATI) began the presentation of educational materials from an airplane to the schools and colleges of six states: Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin. This project uses two DC-6AB airplanes based at Purdue University. The transmitting aircraft flies in a circle of ten miles radius at an FCC-assigned altitude of 23,000 feet. It covers North Central Indiana and serves schools within 200 miles. The seven million dollars' cost is being met by the Ford Foundation and contributions from industry. Westinghouse has supplied the technical equipment needed to televise the programs that have been set up.

Courses are being programmed with the approximate distribution of 40 per cent for the elementary schools, 40 per cent for the secondary schools, and 20 per cent for the colleges and universities.

Table 13. Spring Semester Schedule

Time	MONDAY			TUESDAY		
9:00	Russian	(4)*	Frontiers of Science or Math (3)	Russian	(4)	Mathematics for Teachers H.S.
9:30	General Science	(4)	Physics (4)	General Science	(4)	Physics (4)
	Junior High		MIT	Junior High		MIT
10:00	Arithmetic	(2)	Arithmetic (2)	Arithmetic	(2)	Arithmetic (2)
10:15	Grade 3		Grade 6	Grade 4		Grade 5
10:45	French or Spanish 1		Advanced Foreign	French or Spanish 1		Advanced Foreign
11:00	Junior High	(4)	Language H.S. (4)	Junior High	(4)	Language H.S. (4)
	Music	(2)	Music (2)	Art	(2)	Art (2)
	Grades 1-3		Grades 4-6	Grades 1-3		Grades 4-6
	Humanities	(3)	Int. Relations (4)	Humanities (3)		Int. Relations (4)
			Area Study			Area Study
11:30	Social Studies	(2)	Arithmetic (2)	Language Arts (2)		Teachers' French
	Grades 1-3		Gifted Children	Grades 1-2		
11:45	Language Arts	(4)	Language Arts (4)	Language Arts (4)		Language Arts (4)
	Grades 3-4		Grades 5-6	Grades 3-4		Grades 5-6
12:00	Humanities	(3)	Frontiers of Science or Math repeat (3)	Guidance (1)		Frontiers of Science or Math repeat (3)
12:30	Government—Civics	Grades 8-12 (4)	Int. Relations (4)	Junior High Government—		
	Science	(5)	Area Study repeat	Civics		
1:00	Continental Classroom		Great Issues (3)	Grades 8-12 (4)		
			Social Science	Science (5)		
1:30	General Science	(4)	Humanities (2)	Continental Classroom		
	Junior High	repeat	Great Books	General Science (4)		
2:00	Art	(2)	Art (2)	Junior High repeat		
	Grades 1-3	repeat	Grades 4-6 repeat	Music (2)		
2:15	Science	(2)	Social Studies (4)	Grades 1-3 repeat		
	Grades 1-2		Grades 4-6	Arithmetic (2)		
				Gifted Children		
2:30	French	(4)	Spanish (4)	repeat		
	Grades 3-6		Grades 3-6	French (4)		
2:45	Science	(4)	Science (4)	Grades 3-6		
	Grades 3-4		Grades 5-6	Science (4)		
3:00				Grades 3-4		Grades 5-6

* The number in the () indicates the number of times each week the course is offered.

The value of any televised program for the secondary school depends on its appeal to adolescents. According to a nine-year study of their television viewing habits, a large number of young people devote about thirteen hours a week to TV viewing, and favor westerns, "shock" presentations, and musical programs.

The worthwhile use of television in the classroom depends on several things:

1. Kind of equipment provided by the board of education
2. Training of teachers in the use of television
3. Teachers' willingness to experiment to discover best ways of using television in the classroom
4. Preparation of students for specific television programs
5. Development of standards of intelligent viewing
6. Consideration of main points viewed
7. Careful planning so that excellent programs are available

Field Trips The field trip or observation trip is an important aid. Through visits to the art gallery, the textile mill, the stock ex-

change, the bank, and the museum, for example, students can learn much of immediate and lasting importance.

The educational values derived from the field trip will be determined largely by what is done in the classroom before and after the trip. To be worthwhile, field trips require careful and thoughtful planning and follow-up. Teachers have not utilized them to their fullest extent, though they have made satisfactory use of visits to museums, art galleries, and similar places of general interest, and the work-study plan that is in operation in some high schools often includes field trips.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Show how television can be used to promote effective learning in your particular subject.
2. What are some of the disadvantages of using motion pictures in the classroom?
3. Prepare a poster for "Education Week." Have an art student draw a suitable picture to go with it.
4. Using an outline map of the world, fill in as many of the countries as you can. Fill in the states on an outline map of the United States.
5. Select a picture in a book or some other source and explain it to a class as it is projected on a screen.
6. Suggest uses of filmstrips, motion pictures, maps, globes, and slides in teaching your subject.
7. Evaluate field trips as aids in education.
8. How can one help pupils learn to evaluate and appreciate good motion pictures?
9. What objects, specimens, or models can be used effectively in teaching a particular unit in your subject area?
10. Select a film in your subject and prepare the class and yourself for its showing. Write what you did to complete this assignment.
11. To what extent, if any, will training through visual instruction interfere with training in the use of language?
12. Evaluate this statement: "Every large school system should have its own radio, FM, or AM."
13. What are the educational advantages of the radio and television programs available in your community during the current week?
14. To what extent are teachers responsible for guiding the radio and TV listening habits of secondary school pupils?

15. Listen to radio and TV broadcasts for a period of time, such as a week or two weeks, and list the best in (a) news, (b) entertainment, (c) forums, (d) public relations, and (e) special features.
16. What are some of the shortcomings of the use of radio or TV in education?
17. Should student radio broadcasts become a part of organized school procedure?
18. Why is the classroom better adapted to the use of television than the school auditorium?
19. Compare the relative values of the newspaper, the radio, and television as learning aids.
20. Outline a plan which can be used for out-of-school radio programs related to your subject.
21. What is your favorite radio program? television program? How often do you listen to it? What can you do to spread your listening to other programs? Should you be expected to tune in programs that you prefer not to hear? Should your pupils?

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The Community as an Educational Agency

Popularly interpreted, the community is an individual's immediate neighborhood, the group with which he associates, or the geographic area in which he lives. But improved media of communication and transportation have helped to bring peoples closer together. The growing complexity of civilization has increased interdependence among people in all parts of the world. Hence the term *community* rightly can be enlarged to refer to persons anywhere who are bound together by interdependence and similarity of interests and ideals. On the basis of economic, political, or cultural ties, therefore, an individual's community may be a village, a town, a city, a state, a nation, or an even larger area.

RELATION OF THE SCHOOL TO THE COMMUNITY

Organized education is only one of the agencies responsible for the total educational development of an individual. Much of one's learning is achieved through participation with others in activities not sponsored by the school.

Interdependence of School and Community The community's influence on education is tremendous. The community in which a school is located sets its cultural pattern. The political ideology of the leaders of the community affects the extent to which educational opportunity is offered to the youth of the community. The citizens who pay the school bills control the amount and kind of education provided.

A young person's life pattern is inextricably involved with the community in which he lives. It behooves educators, therefore, to help young people achieve awareness and understanding of their community.

Education through Community Experiences According to modern educational philosophy, an understanding of the past is only partial preparation for constructive living in the present. Students must become acquainted with the world in which they are functioning; they need actual as well as vicarious experiences in group living. Community experiences and classroom study represent complementary aspects of an integrated learning process.

Many curriculums and courses of study include carefully planned projects dealing with community-pointed learning experiences. The success of a community project depends on its being tied into a current unit of study; the project begins and ends in the classroom. Moreover, for any school-community project to be an effective learning experience, its leader (a teacher or other member of the school staff) must understand the value of available educational resources in the community.

Industrial leaders address school assemblies or individual classes concerning work opportunities in their fields; pupils and teachers participate in tours of neighborhood business houses, industrial plants, and government agencies; groups of pupils and teachers attend community-sponsored discussions of topics that have teaching-learning value. Many large companies furnish literature, free from advertising, that has guidance potential. These and other types of friendly co-operation between the school and the community not only improve the school's public relations but serve as expanded media of instruction.

BRINGING THE COMMUNITY INTO THE SCHOOL

Young people can gain some knowledge of the community through textbooks and reference books, visual and auditory materials. But, helpful as these media are, they provide no more than vicarious experience. Wherever actual experiences are possible, they should be utilized.

Documentary Sources Studying original source material is more convincing than reading or talking about secondary materials. Much excellent printed material is available for classroom use. Some of it can be procured at little or no cost from business organizations, community agencies, or the government. Included among such source (primary) materials are official records, bank statements, bills of lading, tax receipts, bulletins, census reports, files of local newspapers, and pamphlets dealing with health preservation, safety measures, consumer protection, and the like.

Teachers and pupils who together study up-to-the-minute documentary materials gain a better understanding of current community affairs. Guesswork and vague impressions are eliminated, and accurate learning is ensured. At one time, for example, businessmen were wont to complain that graduates of high-school commercial courses had been trained in antiquated business methods. Acquaintance with the forms and materials used in business today has eliminated such complaints.

School Museums In an increasing number of schools, one room is set aside as a school museum. The older schools may have to sacrifice a classroom for this purpose. Many of the newer schools have one or more rooms equipped with glass cases in which to exhibit various types of materials loaned to the school by outside agencies for periods of from one week to one month.

Art collections are interesting and valuable learning aids. They may represent the work of a particular artist, trace the history of a particular type of art, or illustrate the use of various art media. Collections available to schools in some communities include also examples of ancient or modern handicraft, flags, rare coins, musical instruments, original historical documents, and the like.

The kind of material brought into the school is limited only by the ingenuity of school people and the degree of co-operation that exists between the school and the community. As young people study an exhibit, either individually or in groups, they gain a personal interest in and a feeling for things that cannot be gained from descriptions in books. This is especially true when the teacher prepares the pupils for their inspection of the collection and supplements their observation by appropriate reading and discussion.

Talks by Community Leaders Inviting community leaders to address the school assembly is a common practice in many schools. Unfortunately, however, the speaker rather than the subject of the talk too often is the important consideration. Something is gained by young people when they are given an opportunity to see and to listen to a man or woman who has made a worthwhile contribution in some field or who is active in community affairs. Yet the subject of the talk may have little or no relation to the immediate study program of the listeners. Or they may not have been prepared in advance for the talk or do not plan to use it as a subject for discussion afterwards.

An increasing number of schools are instituting programs of pertinent talks given by appropriate community leaders. These serve as learning aids in specific areas of study. A speaker may address a large group of students or lead a classroom discussion. In health education or home economics, for example, a series of talks on health care given by nurses or doctors from a community health center is valuable. Police officers are invited to lead discussions on safety measures, traffic regulations, and other matters dealing with community welfare and regard for the law. English classes welcome talks by well-known authors, theater people, publishers, and newspaper men. Government officials can give much practical information to social studies classes.

Career guidance is a fertile field for lecture programs. As a means of acquainting pupils with occupational opportunities in the community, business and industrial leaders can be invited to discuss their respective fields. Representatives from various institutions of higher learning can come to the school to tell interested pupils about curricular offerings.

The School As a Community Center The length of time a school building is used each day is increasing. After the regular school hours are over, the building is kept open for community activities. Here parents, their adolescent children, and other people can gather. In more and more schools they can enjoy forum discussions, illustrated lectures, worthwhile motion-picture programs, and other recreational and educational experiences. The school building is more likely, of course, to be the center of community life in small communities than in large cities.

There are excellent values to be achieved by all-day use of school facilities. Many interesting projects have been developed in communities where this practice prevails. Moreover, the informal atmosphere created by community activities seems to permeate regular classroom procedures. This is especially true when parents' associations or other worthy community groups are permitted to use available school space during the regular school hours. Teachers, pupils, and other community members come to know and respect one another.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN THE COMMUNITY

In addition to bringing the community into the school, teachers and pupils need to go out of the school into the community. They can learn thereby what the community has to offer its citizens, how well it is managing its affairs, and where and how people can fit into community life and serve community needs. The pupil's first interest is his own immediate neighborhood. He can be motivated to want to know it well and to recognize his own place in it, without neglecting the larger community of which he is also a member. Study of the immediate community can become a part of the regular school-year program. Visits to more remote places take the form of extended tours during vacation periods.

Study of the Immediate Community A group of students can be taken out of the classroom during a school day or on a non-school day to visit a nearby place of interest or to study neighborhood conditions at first hand. The value of the trip depends in part on the size of the participating group. Rarely should more than thirty-five students be taken at one time unless the larger group can be divided for observation purposes.

In the immediate vicinity of every secondary school or nearby are places which students enjoy visiting. These points of interest include:

1. Natural or man-made phenomena: mountains, lakes, rivers, parks, dams
2. Courts: municipal, county, state, federal
3. Public utilities: telephone company, electric power plant, sewage disposal plant, water works

4. Government buildings: post office, city hall, state house
5. Community welfare organizations: health department, sanitation department, fire department, police department, recreational centers
6. Miscellaneous: banks, department stores, industrial plants, business houses, churches, museums, art galleries, colleges, special schools

Many public-welfare organizations welcome visits from school people if the trips are well timed and conducted in orderly fashion. Some industrial plants provide guided tours. Government buildings and courts usually are open to school people. Government officials prefer small visiting groups, so that their work will not be unduly interrupted.

Extended Tours Trips outside the immediate community may require several days or longer. For example, selected pupils of some schools spend their spring or summer vacation on school-sponsored and teacher-guided tours to places of interest that may be many miles from the young people's home town.

Some seniors from Eastern, Central, and Southern schools spend their spring vacation visiting the national Capital. Niagara Falls, Yellowstone Park, and other places noted for their scenic beauty also are favored spots to be visited by young people who do not live too far from them. Great industrial centers, state capitals, and places of historic interest are popular as well. During the summer vacation longer trips can be undertaken. Some of these tours may cover as much as 6,000 miles. In addition, there is a trend toward including selected students in good-will tours to other parts of the world. Through participation in projects such as these, young people broaden their horizons. They achieve an understanding of group living that goes beyond their experiences in the local communities, and that, in turn, may lead to a better appreciation of their own communities.

Camping Experiences Camping trips are similar to extended tours in that the campers are taken away from their immediate community environment. The primary purpose of a camping trip is to give experience in group living where young people reared in a city environment can gain a better understanding

and appreciation of rural life. The summer camp is not a new idea. For many years religious organizations, philanthropic agencies, and private groups have maintained such camps for children and adolescents. School-sponsored camps are relatively new, however. These may increase in number, since they afford excellent experience in healthful outdoor activities and communal living.

The federal-sponsored farm-help camps inaugurated during World War II served as excellent means of community service. The boys and girls who participated in these projects under teacher guidance gained invaluable educational experience. In fact, the success of the farm-help and Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) programs has caused community leaders to recommend the inauguration of similar projects for the rehabilitation of youthful offenders.

Community Surveys An active, progressive community is interested in self-improvement. It is possible, however, for well-intentioned citizens to become used to undesirable community conditions. Community leaders may need to be shaken out of their apathy by an active, alert group of students, stimulated by intelligent and foresighted teachers who are concerned with community improvement.

Various phases of community life can be surveyed by young people. Some of the suitable areas of study are housing conditions, available recreational facilities, health and safety hazards, unused community resources, inadequacies in government or in public welfare agencies, crowded school conditions. Secondary-school pupils also can organize polls of public opinion on important political and social issues.

Surveys are worthwhile only if they are conducted with great care. Sponsoring teachers must do much preparatory work to alert the student participants to the purpose of the survey, the method of conducting it, and the use to be made of the assembled data. A well-conducted survey has great value for those students who engage in it and for their schoolmates who receive a full report of the findings. To become a significant community project, the results of the study also must be made known to the community at large through oral reports presented by the participants.

to parents and other interested citizens, or articles in the school or community newspaper.

Service to the Community Young people can engage in innumerable service activities as part of their everyday community living. Among such service projects are volunteer assistance in hospitals and other welfare organizations, participation in "clean-up" campaigns, and regulation of street traffic under the direction of teachers or police officials during school fire drills or at the beginning or end of the school day. Adolescent enthusiasm must not cause young people to become public nuisances, however, nor must their enthusiasm be allowed to act as encouragement for community organizations (especially private concerns) to exploit the young people. Their activities must be guided wisely by the teacher working co-operatively with his pupils and the community.

Work Projects Pupil participation in part-time work can have considerable educational value. If the experience is to be profitable, the young person's occupational experience should be related to school study. For example, practical experience in handling money or in dealing with people can be gained through selling newspapers or magazines, delivering merchandise, selling in a local store after school hours. The teacher who knows about the after-school work activities of his pupils can help them become aware of the educational significance of their jobs by discussing in class the importance of their work.

The most effective part-time work experience is that engaged in as part of the school program of studies. The co-operative work-study program carried on at Antioch College, Ohio, is being incorporated into an increasing number of secondary schools. Students who major in certain vocational fields—business, technical, or mechanical—carry a correlated program of school study and work experience. Two young people work together as a team: while one young person is in school the other is on the job. In this way the two carry a work project through a school year or longer. At the same time, they receive study preparation that eventually will fit them for full-time employment in their chosen occupation. This technique helps young people learn

through doing. It is also an excellent medium by which to develop good school-community relations.

SUGGESTED PROCEDURES

A few suggestions for efficient management are presented in this section.

The Workshop Approach The workshop procedure had its beginning during the summer of 1936, when thirty-five teachers who were co-operating in the Eight-Year-Study of high school-college articulation met at Ohio State University to discuss problems related to their work. This six-week session and others held later were so successful that the workshop technique has become an accepted approach to teacher education.

This procedure has now found its way into the secondary school. Pupil participation in community experiences offers an excellent opportunity to apply the workshop technique. As a group of pupils prepares for participation in and draws conclusions from one or another type of community experience, the young people can discuss their individual and group problems with teachers and community leaders. They thereby achieve an intelligent understanding of problem-solving and develop power to meet other problem situations.

Planning the Project Before the pupils go out into the community, they must understand thoroughly what they are to do. They can develop this understanding by committee research and report. If an entire class is to participate in the project, the pupils are divided into groups, and the activities of each group are organized by a well-qualified student leader. Under teacher guidance, each of the groups decides when, where, and how to proceed, so that duplication of effort is avoided.

Conduct of the Project The leader of each group must be aware of the efficiency of each member of his group. He keeps in close touch with the activities of all the participants. This is extremely important. It is the teacher's responsibility to offer suggestions, correct errors of procedure, and encourage any who lose

interest or become discouraged. Pupil participation in community activities is an experience in human relations. Immature people cannot be expected to achieve success in dealing with other people unless they have wise adult guidance.

Final Steps During the project, the active participants keep their classmates or schoolmates informed of their progress. When the out-of-school experiences are completed, the findings should be studied by all concerned. Excellent practice in problem-solving can be had by these young people as they understand the significance of the data, consider the results, formulate conclusions, and make recommendations.

Finally, a complete report of the project should be made available to school people and interested community members, especially if the project is a survey of community conditions. As was suggested earlier, the pupils who conducted the survey should meet with groups of citizens to discuss their findings. There can be no better preparation for citizenship than school-initiated and school-executed community projects.

SPECIAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS

A fundamental reason for lack of student participation in community affairs can be traced to the teacher's unpreparedness for leadership in this educational area. The average secondary-school teacher with even ten or more years of experience may know little about his school community beyond what he has picked up incidentally.

Too many teachers still are bound by course syllabi. They believe, sometimes rightly, that the regular school day and school year are not long enough to cover all the details of a crowded course of study. Hence time devoted to activities other than regular classroom study is considered time stolen from the essential job. These teachers do not realize that some learning can be achieved better through practical experience than by textbook mastery. Moreover, they themselves are not sufficiently acquainted with community resources to assume leadership responsibility for community projects.

Teacher Education Programs Teachers colleges and teacher-education departments of liberal arts colleges recognize the value, in education on any level, of practical or field experiences. Hence many of these institutions include community experiences in their programs of studies.

Community experience programs differ among institutions. Some teachers colleges, especially those that draw their student body from many small communities, assign students to neighboring small-school communities for their practice-teaching experiences. While a student is engaged in practice teaching, he usually lives with a family in the community and is expected to participate in community activities. Before a student is sent on his assignment, he is briefed on the community in which he will be living. Upon their return to the college, the members of the group discuss and compare their various experiences.

Other colleges encourage their education majors to serve as volunteer workers in community agencies. Another approach is gaining increased favor, especially in large-city colleges, in which early in the program of teacher education, groups of students, accompanied by their instructor, visit various community agencies, institutions, and organizations. These observational visits are preceded and followed by classroom discussions. By means of this procedure, students receive a broad general acquaintance with the community. During the junior year the students are expected to engage in community activities as a part of their required teaching preparation. Emphasis is placed on student participation in service related to adolescent welfare and recreation. Part-time work projects may also be included in the program. The students' community experiences are guided constantly by selected college instructors and tied in closely with regular classroom study.

THE VALUE OF COMMUNITY EXPERIENCES

Although students need to devote a considerable amount of out-of-class time to any effective program of community activity, they usually recognize the value to themselves of the experiences. They learn to work with people. They come to know

their community. Their classroom study of psychology and sociology as related to education takes on new meaning. Prospective teachers who study their community at first hand will develop skill in dealing with community affairs, and will encourage similar participation by their pupils.

The value of experience in community agencies can best be indicated by presenting students' comments made after having participated in a year's experience in community agencies.

I felt that I gained confidence and much valuable experience working under my supervisor and with teenagers. At first, I felt uneasy and inexperienced with the boys and girls, but gradually I felt more at ease and began to develop an interest in each child's problems.

The feeling that comes through the strongest is that here you find youngsters as individuals with needs, problems and personality differences which a classroom structure does not allow full play.

I found that I have a tremendous amount to learn. I was able to relate to the individuals in the group and felt relaxed and really enjoyed working with the teen-agers. I wanted to get closer to them to give them more.

It was a stimulating experience in that I had to adjust to a new and somewhat difficult situation; I had to give of myself and learn rapidly. I can tell you that I slept soundly every night after a session at the community agency.

My assignment at this community center was my first experience in group leadership, and was for me the beginning of a world of new and enriching experiences. One of my first realizations was that my role as a leader was far more complex and comprehensive than just teaching social dancing to a group of girls.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Indicate specific reasons for the present broadened concept of the community.
2. Why are small-town youth likely to be more community-conscious than young people who live in large cities?
3. How well acquainted are you with your local community?

4. Why should adolescent participation in community activity be well organized?
5. Try to recall at least five community leaders who addressed groups of students in the secondary school you attended. What were their topics? How interested were you in what they said? To what extent were the talks related to your studies?
6. What kinds of documentary materials could you utilize in the teaching of your subject?
7. If there are school museums in the schools with which you are acquainted, how are they used?
8. Explain in detail the extent to which the schools in your home town are utilized as community centers.
9. In how many field trips did you participate as a secondary-school student? How valuable were they? What other field trips would you have enjoyed if they had been available?
10. What are some of the difficulties experienced by teachers and students in extended field trips?
11. Do you believe in school-sponsored camping projects? Give reasons for your opinion.
12. Describe a community survey to be undertaken by young people as a part of learning in your subject field. As a teacher, what would be your part in the project?
13. List the services having educational value that could be rendered by secondary-school pupils in your community.
14. What are some of the precautionary measures that should be taken when pupils engage in community services?
15. Express your opinion of part-time work as a community experience for secondary-school pupils.
16. How much training are you receiving in your teacher-education program to fit you for leadership of student participation in community experiences?

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The Secondary-School Teacher

On any educational level, the teacher is the mainspring of the school's activities. Educational objectives are realized only insofar as individual teachers motivate learners to benefit from the educative process. In previous chapters we have discussed some of the general and specific learning needs of adolescents. We now shall consider the role of the secondary-school teacher in meeting the educational needs and interests of young people in a democracy.

ROLE OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHER

Effective educational leadership can come only through carefully selected and highly trained teaching personnel. The teacher is the greatest single factor in secondary-school education. He stimulates and guides the learner's activity. His influence permeates the thought and behavior, in school and out, of the boys and girls who are associated with him.

Basic Functions of the Secondary-School Teacher The secondary-school teacher has two basic functions: he must guide each student toward the formation of behavior habits that will enable him to be a law-abiding citizen, and he must encourage each student to develop his intellectual power to the utmost so that he may participate constructively in an appropriate area of service to mankind. The good teacher motivates; he adapts curricular provisions to individual needs; he adjusts teaching techniques to specific situations; he manages the classroom methodically and expeditiously; he assumes and conducts efficiently his administrative and extraclass responsibilities; he co-operates cheerfully and intelligently with parents and community agencies.

Within the last decade, both the public and school people

have become more interested in the education of the gifted for leadership in national and world affairs. The identification of talent and the intellectual stimulation of the mentally superior are important functions of secondary-school teachers, but less able young people also can be motivated to become independent thinkers and use sound judgment. Concerning this point, Clarence H. Faust says:

What we need to find (and this is one of the great challenges for the teachers of the new era) are appropriate though different means to develop some degree of wisdom about fundamental human concerns in students having different interests and capacities. The so-called slow learner and the inadequately motivated student may not study the same materials, or be guided by the same methods, or manage to maintain the same pace, as those who are gifted and well motivated. But I am convinced that, if we give our minds earnestly enough to the problem and experiment wisely and boldly enough, we shall be able to find the materials, the methods, and the pace that will enable all but the mentally defective to acquire some grasp and some insight into the questions with which as human beings and as citizens in a democratic society they will have to deal.¹

The Teacher's Influence on Students Radio, TV, press, motion pictures, and other influences in the environment are powerful stimulators of learning; yet cultural and economic progress has resulted primarily from effective teaching. The teacher exerts a powerful influence on the development of the attitudes and emotional patterns of behavior that characterize the lives of learners through their adolescent and adult years. The master teacher recognizes the value of helping pupils develop desirable attitudes toward school work as well as toward other life activities.

Teaching below the college level is regarded popularly as a woman's job, but secondary-school boys and girls can benefit from the influence of both men and women teachers. During the early days of public secondary education, high-school students and faculty were predominantly male. As more girls entered

¹ Clarence H. Faust, "Essential Qualifications of Teachers for the New Era," in Chase, Francis S., and Anderson, H. A., ed., *The High School In a New Era*, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1958, pp. 126-127. Copyright 1958 by the University of Chicago.

high school, more women teachers were hired. The ratio of women to men teachers became about two to one in favor of women. The more recent trend, however, is toward an increase in men teachers. Table 14 indicates the extent of this trend in public secondary schools during a fifteen-year period.

Table 14. Public Secondary-School Teachers, 1943-1946 and 1957-1959

Date	Men Teachers	Per Cent	Women Teachers	Per Cent	Total Teachers	Per Cent
1943-44	97,782	33.8	194,272	66.2	289,054	100
1945-46	103,293	34.2	186,205	65.8	289,498	100
1957-58*	222,614	48.4	237,183	51.6	459,797	100
1958-59*	235,105	48.7	247,628	51.3	482,733	100

* From *Estimates of School Statistics*, 1957-58, p. 22; and 1958-1959, p. 20. Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

The fundamental personal qualities desired in a secondary-school teacher are neither numerous nor difficult to name. They include good health and freedom from physical handicap, pleasing voice quality and correct diction and use of English, careful grooming, excellent character and personal habits, wholesome attitudes toward young people, and better than average mental ability.

A teacher who suffers from visual or auditory defects, or is crippled or small in stature, is at a disadvantage in a classroom. He may be fitted by temperament, interest, and training to become an effective teacher, but his success with young people may be lessened because of his height, weight, or other physical limitation. Students preparing to enter the teaching profession should be acquainted with the physical requirements.

The quality of a teacher's voice, his diction, and the quality of his English have a marked influence on adolescents. Consequently, much attention should be given to these qualities during preservice education, so that the prospective teacher will be able to command the attention and respect of his pupils through skill in speaking.

The young man or woman who wishes to become a secondary-school teacher must be able to master subject matter in his

own field and in related fields, to develop understanding of adolescent nature, and to acquire teaching skills. His mental acuity, therefore, should be at least average for college students. The teacher trainee should understand the learning difficulties of slow pupils, since the art of teaching involves the ability to stimulate all learners—the bright, the average, and the dull.

A teacher's personality is an important factor in the classroom. The teacher should be emotionally stable. He must set an example which will help his pupils develop emotional control. The great teacher is able to devote his energy, talent, and time to helping his pupils progress in their learning. Numerous studies have been made to determine the personality traits essential for success in teaching, and many attempts at personality evaluation have been undertaken by pupils, teachers, and supervisors. These evaluations are subjective, however, and reflect the personality and attitude of the rater as well as those of the person who is being rated.

In the lists of desirable teacher traits the specific qualities usually are grouped in large categories, such as personal qualities, teaching skills, professional attitudes, and general knowledge. One of the most active workers in this field is A. S. Barr, who examined existing teacher-rating scales and combined the results of his study in a suggested list of fifty teacher traits that are commonly accepted as worthy of consideration.²

Two of the authors presented a list of forty teacher characteristics to 260 college seniors and 570 high-school seniors. The ranking of the traits by these two groups reveals certain similarities of attitude toward teachers. A comparison of the rankings, however, indicates that the high-school seniors emphasized personality traits. The college seniors were more sensitive to the effectiveness of teaching techniques, possibly as a result of their having taken courses in education. Both groups emphasized the value of the teacher's knowledge of subject matter. (See Table 15.)

According to the findings of a study completed recently under

² See A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency: A Summary of Investigations," *The Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XVI, No. 4, June, 1948.

Table 15. Teacher Traits as Ranked by Students

260 College Seniors		570 High School Seniors	
Rank	Trait	Rank	Trait
1	Skill in motivating work	1	Knowledge of subject matter
2	Knowledge of subject matter	2	Interest in students
3	Interest in students	3	Patience
4	Stimulation of thought	4	Encouragement of students
5	Adaptability	5	Accuracy
6	Encouragement of students	6	Attractive appearance
7	Definiteness of aim	7	Friendliness
8	Subject matter organization	8	Subject matter organization
9	Attention to individual needs	9	Adaptability
10	Patience	10	Consideration for others
11	Sincerity	11	Definiteness of aim
12	Sympathetic attitude	12	Daily preparation
13	Enthusiasm	13	Tactfulness
14	Tactfulness	14	Cooperation
15	Democratic attitude	15	Sincerity
16	Cooperation	16	Sense of justice
17	Resourcefulness	17	Sense of humor
18	Sense of justice	18	Attention to individual needs
19	Friendliness	19	Cheerfulness
20	Accuracy	20	Self-control
21	Ability to discipline	21	Professional interest
22	Self-control	22	Enthusiasm
23	Consideration for others	23	Knowing students' names
24	Cheerfulness	24	Good voice
25	Daily preparation	25	Stimulation of thought
26	Sense of humor	26	Ability to discipline
27	Self-reliance	27	Democratic attitude
28	Good voice	28	Skill in motivating work
29	Good health	29	Moral influence
30	Moral influence	30	Resourcefulness
31	Professional interest	31	Sympathetic attitude
32	School management	32	Loyalty
33	Attractive appearance	33	Punctuality
34	Knowing students' names	34	Self-reliance
35	Punctuality	35	Good health
36	Optimism	36	Optimism
37	Loyalty	37	School spirit
38	School spirit	38	School management
39	Posture	39	Posture
40	Interest in community	40	Interest in community

(By permission from *Mental Hygiene*, by L. D. Crow and Alice Crow. Copyright, 1951. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, pp. 232-233.)

the auspices of the New York State Education Department, the most important characteristics of effective teachers, in the opinion of secondary-school principals, include subject-matter mastery, motivation, dedication, co-operation, sense of humor, creative efficiency, self-control, discipline, standards, promptness with reports, methods, success with Regents (State) examinations, and generosity with personal time for students.

TEACHER PREPARATION

It is essential that a teacher be thoroughly grounded in appropriate subject matter, but he also should understand people and be prepared to guide them. The leadership functions of the secondary-school teacher are becoming increasingly important. This aspect of teacher responsibility was stressed by the American Association of School Administrators in a recently published yearbook:

In addition to the competencies which have long been part of the professional equipment of good secondary-school teachers, four other major classifications of ability and concern on the part of teachers may well be specified. Teachers who can meet the new tasks of the secondary schools will increasingly serve as intelligent and responsible citizens; they will have a humane perceptiveness of the relations between youth and the adult world; they will see clearly the role of the emerging school in the emerging world; and they will have both a pride in and a realistic understanding of the teaching profession itself.³

General Requirements for Teaching For many years the sole educational requirement for teaching in the secondary school was a bachelor's degree from a recognized college, even though preparation for teaching in the elementary school was expected to include a detailed study of child nature and the acquisition of effective teaching skills. But educators came to realize that adolescent learners as well as children need the help and stimulation that can be given by a person who knows *how* to teach as well as *what* to teach. There is now general agreement among the states as to what constitutes adequate teacher training for the secondary school, and certain professional courses are required for certification.

Preservice teacher education The first department of education in a liberal arts college was established in New York University in 1832. Since that time, education departments have

³ *The High School in a Changing World*. Thirty-sixth Yearbook, 1958, 230. American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1958, p.

come to be included in most colleges and universities. In addition, normal schools, which at first were established to prepare young men and women for teaching in the elementary school, later became teachers colleges which prepared students for secondary-school teaching also. At present, many of these teachers colleges are including more liberal arts curriculum materials in their programs.

College preparation for teaching usually includes the completion of a specified number of semester hours in all or most of the following academic fields: English, one or more foreign languages, science, mathematics, social studies, music, art, and health and physical education—with a concentration in the subject-matter area which the individual is preparing to teach. In addition, most states require that the candidate for certification have completed successfully a stated number of semester hours of professional courses, such as history of education or principles of education, psychology and its application to education (especially general, educational, and adolescent psychology), and methods of secondary-school teaching, including directed observation and supervised student teaching.⁴

Valuable experience is gained through observation and practice teaching. The American Association of Teachers Colleges recommends that a minimum of ninety hours of student teaching be included in the teacher trainee's college program. Graduates and seniors usually single out student teaching as the course that has been of greatest value to them in their teacher-training preparation. This practice, coming as it does after teacher trainees have completed at least some courses in theory and method, enables them to apply their knowledge in actual teaching-learning situations. Moreover, during this practice experience they learn to know the pupils as human beings.

The extent to which teacher trainees can profit from practice teaching depends, of course, on the amount and kind of such pre-teaching experience offered them and the attitudes toward student teaching displayed by members of the college staff and by the personnel of the co-operating schools.

⁴ For a comparative study of state requirements see W. E. Armstrong and T. M. Sturnett, *A Manual on Certification Requirements: For School Personnel in the United States*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1959.

CERTIFICATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Certification requirements for teaching in the secondary school differ among states. Each state outlines its own requirements for teacher certification in the form of state law. Some states require no more than four years of college study; but in an increasing number of states, thirty credits of appropriate graduate study are required, and a few states are encouraging the completion of sixty graduate credits. In many states a Standard Secondary Certificate is a valid license for teaching in both junior and senior high schools; other states are somewhat less rigid in their requirements for teacher certification for the junior high school than for senior high school. Furthermore, states differ from one another in the curriculum content of preservice teacher education.

Many states are adjusting their requirements for teacher certification. Present emphasis on the role of the secondary-school teacher as a leader of young people in their out-of-school relationships as well as in their classroom activities is challenging state officials to secure men and women who are temperamentally prepared to assume their expanding responsibilities.

Certificating Authorities The state has the authority to issue teaching certificates or licenses to teach. State authorities either issue such certificates directly or delegate that authority to one of the state subdivisions, such as a county, a city, or an independent district. Certain large cities have been given this right by special legislation.

When a local community is authorized by the state to issue teaching certificates, each candidate for a certificate must meet the requirements established by the state, as well as additional requirements set by the local school board. For example, in New York City 30 hours of graduate work were required in order to meet eligibility for high-school teaching long before this requirement was written into New York State law. This city also has other special course requirements that are not included in the state requirements: eligibility to teach high-school English in New York City is contingent on the candidate's passing a course in speech fundamentals and one in speech correction.

Certificating Methods In most states it is possible to secure a teaching certificate on the basis of college credentials. The state prescribes the courses to be completed, and the individual who completes these courses qualifies for a certificate to teach in that state. It does not follow, however, that a person who is qualified in one state is automatically eligible for a certificate in another.

There still is difference of opinion as to whether the trend to license teachers on the basis of college records is sounder procedure than certifying teachers by examination. The method of certification by college credits is a challenge to the college personnel who plan the course sequences pursued by teacher trainees.

In some large city school systems (New York City, for example), teacher certification is based on the administration of appropriate licensing examinations. There is a growing emphasis on a national examination system. The National Teacher Examinations, sponsored by the American Council on Education, are given each February to all who wish to compete for a place on a national list with the hope that a superintendent who is seeking teachers will offer them positions. These examinations measure the intellectual, academic, and cultural backgrounds of prospective teachers. The specific examinations emphasize functions and applications rather than specific facts. All tests are objective and consist of multiple-choice items.

Candidates take the following tests:

Common Examinations:

Verbal Comprehension

Professional Information

Non-verbal Reasoning

Educational and Social Policy

English Expression

Child Development and Educational Psychology

General Culture

History, Literature, and Fine

Guidance, and Individual and Group Analysis

Arts

Science and Mathematics

General Principles and Methods of Teaching

Contemporary Affairs

Optional Examinations: Candidates for secondary-school positions may take one or two of the following:

English Language and Literature	French
Social Studies	German
Mathematics	Spanish
Biological Sciences	Latin
Physical Sciences	Commercial Education
	Industrial Education

The examination seems to be the most effective instrument yet devised to select from among a large number of candidates those who are most likely to succeed in teaching, especially if a personal interview is included as part of the examination procedure.

PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

The keynote of a profession is service to others. With the increased emphasis on teacher responsibility for pupil welfare has come public recognition of teaching as a profession. The attitude of a teacher is the determining factor in the extent to which he commands the respect of parents and other members of the community. Adequate training, high ideals, conscientious service, and efforts at self-improvement contribute to the professional status of teaching. Such professions as law and medicine have established codes of ethics that serve as guides for the behavior of those who join their ranks. The National Education Association has adopted a code of ethics for teachers, including five principles and suggestions for fulfilling each principle.⁵ The first principle deals with the obligation of the teacher to guide children in their pursuit of knowledge and in their preparation for citizenship. The second pertains to the co-operation between the teachers and the parents in developing socially acceptable behavior. The third principle states that the teaching profession is one of public trust and that the teacher's personal conduct is vital to the success of the profession, as are friendly, co-operative, and constructive relationships between the school personnel

⁵ See *Code of Ethics of the National Education Association of the United States*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., or L. D. Crow and A. Crow, *Introduction to Education*, New Revised Edition, American Book Company, New York, 1960, pp. 544-547.

and members of the community. The fourth principle refers to the obligations of the teacher and the school system with respect to employment. Among the suggestions for applying this principle are these: "Conduct professional business through the proper channels," and "Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made." The fifth principle outlines ways in which the teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations and indicates ways in which the teacher can enjoy professional status—for example, by maintaining active membership in professional organizations.

Teacher-Pupil Relationships It is important that the effective teacher learn a great deal about his pupils. He should know their names, their interests, their mental capacities, their degree of emotional stability, their physical constitution, and their social urges. During the first week of the term he should begin to recognize each pupil as an individual. By the end of the first month he should understand them well enough to guide classroom activities so that he and the pupils together can achieve individually satisfying and socially worthwhile goals.

It is especially important that the relationship between pupils and their teachers be dignified but friendly. The teacher is the key person in these relationships. It is his responsibility to develop among his pupils respect for him as a person and confidence in him as a leader. He does not instill fear or hate in his pupils, nor is he lax and sentimental in his dealings with them.

Young people are sensitive to a teacher's feelings. Favoritism is resented by those who are not favored and is often embarrassing to the pupils who are "teacher's pets." Disapproval of undesirable behavior is most effective when it is definite, given quickly, and directed toward the undesirable behavior, not toward the pupil as an individual.

Adolescent "crushes" are common. Attractive, enthusiastic teachers often become heroes to their pupils. The way in which the teacher deals with these pupil attitudes is a measure of his integrity and strength of character. It is his duty to help pupils recognize that undue interest in a teacher should be avoided. A teacher should be kind, objective, and fair in his treatment of teen-agers, so that there can be established a teacher-pupil rela-

tionship that is friendly and understanding but strictly professional.

Teachers and Their Co-workers Some secondary-school teachers are so engrossed in their own subject matter that they fail to appreciate the social and educational value of other areas of study. Nevertheless, most secondary-school teachers will co-operate with one another. They give evidence of the same human frailties that may be found among any other group of citizens, however. There are instances among teachers of ambition, jealousy, or belittling of achievements of their co-workers.

Conflicts among teachers can be caused by the entrance of a new teacher into the school. If he displays an aggressive attitude, the older teachers are likely to resent him. Fresh from college, the young teacher is eager to demonstrate what he can do with his newly acquired educational theories, and he may resent any curbing of his desire to carry out certain pet ideas. An older teacher who is not willing to change his policies or techniques for those of the newcomer is considered antiquated and unprogressive.

Most teachers already in the school receive new appointees cordially and assist them in orienting themselves to the various departments and to the school. Then, if these newcomers have worthwhile ideas, they are permitted to introduce them gradually. Older teachers who are sincerely interested in the welfare of their pupils will appreciate the value of desirable new techniques.

A beginning teacher who realizes that he still has much to learn about teaching will respect his experienced colleagues and will learn to profit from their experience. During his student-teaching period the beginner probably was eager to receive all the help he could get from his supervisors; he should have the same attitude as he begins his regular teaching. No matter how proficient he was in his student teaching, the present situation is much more challenging. He is entirely on his own, and he will discover that adolescents are well versed in techniques of "trying out" the teacher.

The well-liked teacher's attitude toward co-workers is friendly and co-operative, yet objective. Similarity of interest attracts certain teachers to one another. Close friendships often evolve

from these professional relationships. Such friendships should not interfere, however, with school responsibilities nor with friendly relations with other members of a school faculty.

Adolescents are extremely observant of teacher behavior. They admire teacher friendships, especially if the teachers are popular with them. They are sensitive to friction among their teachers and tend to use any discovered antagonism to their own advantage. A friendly faculty is a powerful means of developing school loyalty and desirable attitudes among young people.

Teacher-Supervisor Relationships The attitude of the teacher toward supervision and the supervisor should be one of co-operation. The achievement of a co-operative relationship is the responsibility of both the supervisor and the teacher. The teacher needs to recognize that a supervisor must guide the activities of his teachers so that the educational needs of the learners are met. (See Chapter 14.)

Teacher-Community Relationships Secondary school teachers usually have an important place in community life. Most parents want their adolescent children to be taught by men and women whose morals are above reproach. Parents want teachers to know their subject and how to present it so as to ensure the educational progress of their children. They also demand teachers who understand their pupils and have interest in them.

A secondary-school teacher should be an active member of the community. In his participation in community affairs, however, he should not let his enthusiasm run away with his good sense. Nevertheless, every teacher should contribute time and energy to community welfare. His efforts in this direction are more than likely to result in personal satisfaction as well as in community good. An alert and enthusiastic teacher with wide social and professional interests can wield a wholesome influence in his community.

SALARIES OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Talented young men and women who prepare themselves to be superior teachers should be rewarded with a salary adequate to meet their living needs. Yet teachers should be attracted to the

profession for their love of working with others—not alone for the salary that can be earned. Recruitment programs seek the teacher who possesses high ideals and knows his subject matter thoroughly.

What constitutes an adequate salary for secondary-school teachers? Some persons believe in a single-salary schedule for all teachers—elementary, junior-high-school, and senior-high-school. Others favor a salary differential in favor of secondary-school teachers. Great interest is now shown in the single-salary schedule, in spite of the fight that is being waged in New York City against it.

Distribution of Salaries The Research Division of the National Education Association no longer reports the salaries separately for the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers. The salary figures given in Table 16 are the latest available.

Table 16. Comparison of Average Salaries of Teachers and Principals, 1958-1959

Type of School	Salaries of Teachers in Cities Grouped by Size*					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Elementary and Secondary	\$5969	\$5260	\$5300	\$5058	\$4755	\$4616
	Salaries of Principals					
Junior High School	\$10,215	\$8615	\$8363	\$7359	\$6377	\$5632
Senior High School	\$11,456	\$9248	\$9111	\$7943	\$6936	\$6392

- * Group I. Cities over 500,000 population
- Group II. Cities between 100,000 and 500,000 in population
- Group III. Cities between 30,000 and 100,000 in population
- Group IV. Cities between 10,000 and 30,000 in population
- Group V. Cities between 5,000 and 10,000 in population
- Group VI. Cities between 2,500 and 5,000 in population

(See *Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1958-59*, Research Report 1959-R16, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.)

TEACHER TENURE, PENSION, AND RETIREMENT

State and local officials recognize the importance to teachers of security in their job and provision for their old age. Considerable progress has been made during the past half-century toward relieving teachers of the emotional strain associated with job insecurity.

Tenure Rights A teacher's morale is bolstered by a feeling of security in his position. Being assured of continuance in his profession encourages him to devote time and effort to preparation for his work and so increase his efficiency.

Tenure started in large cities. New Jersey introduced the first state-wide tenure law in 1909. At present it is possible for a teacher to achieve tenure in a city and to move from one position to another in the same system without losing his tenure. Although, by 1961, 37 states had tenure laws, Pennsylvania was the only state in which tenure teachers did not need to serve another probation period in a new district.

Pensions and Retirement Retirement with pension rights has done much to improve job satisfaction among teachers. Gradually, cities and states began to recognize their responsibility for providing old-age security to teachers who had served the community well. New Jersey instituted the first state-wide pension system for teachers in 1896. At present, pension laws operate in all states.

A state-wide pension system has many advantages over a city system. If a teacher changes his position within the state he may do so without losing his pension status. He also retains his years-of-service credit toward retirement. Both the state and the teachers share the responsibility of maintaining the pension fund. A teacher usually pays into the pension fund a certain percentage of his annual salary. This money is deducted by the local board from his monthly pay checks and credited to his personal pension account. To this sum is added an equal contribution from local or state sources.

The length of service required to qualify for retirement usually is thirty-five years. However, a compulsory retirement age of sixty-five or seventy is set in many cities and states. In some states, provision is made to prorate the pension for retirement after twenty-five or thirty years of service. A disability pension is allowed in most states if a teacher becomes physically or mentally incapacitated after ten years of service. In some states teachers also may receive social security benefits. In some communities social security benefits are part of the total retirement allotment; in others, they supplement the pension.

Table 17. Teacher Self-Rating Scale

Directions: For each item, place a check in the appropriate column.

NAME _____

	Low	Average			High
		2	3	4	
PERSONAL QUALITIES					
Accuracy	1				
Adaptability					
Cheerfulness					
Co-operativeness					
Dependability					
Desire for self-improvement					
Effective use of English and voice					
Emotional stability					
Enthusiasm					
Forcefulness					
Friendliness					
Good health					
Good judgment					
Honesty					
Industriousness					
Interest in community affairs					
Interest in teaching					
Kindness					
Loyalty					
Neatness					
Open-mindedness					
Optimism					
Patience					
Resourcefulness					
School spirit					
Sense of humor					
Sense of justice					
Sincerity					
Sociability					
Tactfulness					
GUIDANCE OF LEARNING					
Ability to develop pupil self-control	1	2	3	4	5
Ability to direct study					
Ability to maintain pupil interest					
Ability to measure pupil achievement					
Ability to sponsor out-of-class activities					
Ability to stimulate thinking					
Ability to meet individual needs					
UTILIZATION OF TEACHING MATERIALS					
Definiteness of aim	1	2	3	4	5
Knowledge of community resources					
Knowledge of improved teaching techniques					
Knowledge of special teaching aids					
Knowledge of subject matter					
Organization of material					
Preparation of material					
School and class management					
Skill in making assignments					
Skill in motivating work					
Skill in questioning					

TEACHER SELF-EVALUATION

The newly-appointed teacher usually is full of enthusiasm. He is eager to apply the knowledge he gained in his preservice teacher-education program. As he meets class after class, however, his enthusiasm may wane. He may become too set in his methods. Hence it is desirable that the teacher evaluate himself periodically. The self-rating scale in Table 17 may be helpful.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. To what extent should teacher trainees be recruited in the high school?
2. What criteria should be used in the selection of trainees for secondary-school teaching?
3. Present minimum qualifications for secondary-school teachers.
4. What suggestions can you make concerning ways of attracting suitable young people into the teaching profession?
5. Discuss "Teaching as a Profession." What is the relationship of a code of ethics to the professional aspects of teaching?
6. What should be the college-entrance requirements for persons who expect to train for the teaching profession?
7. To what extent can screening of candidates be completed before the individual is permitted to teach?
8. What contributions, if any, should the federal government make toward the training of secondary-school teachers?
9. What are the advantages of state supervision of certification of secondary-school teachers?
10. Select five states and compare their certificating requirements for secondary-school teachers.
11. Present the advantages and disadvantages of certifying secondary-school teachers on the basis of (a) college credentials, (b) examinations, (c) a combination of college credentials and examinations.
12. Discuss the value of an interview as a means of obtaining a teaching position.
13. During your secondary-school days did the age of your teachers affect your attitude toward them? Explain.
14. List the personality traits of your favorite secondary-school teacher; of a secondary-school teacher whom you did not like. Note the significant personality differences.
15. During your secondary-school days, to what extent were you aware of teacher criticism of other teachers?

16. Should a teacher fear his supervisors? Discuss.
17. When you were in secondary school did you want your parents and your teachers to become personal friends? Why or why not?
18. List ways in which teachers can participate in community affairs.
19. Study the laws that deal with teacher tenure, salaries, and pensions and retirement of a state in which you may wish to teach. Report your findings.

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The Principal

The teacher's lack of appreciation of administrative and supervisory responsibilities often causes him to resent administrator and supervisor attitudes. Some teachers fail to recognize the importance of their own handling of administrative details. They do not always realize that the efficiency of any group of people is increased through supervision. A beginning teacher needs to bring to his job some knowledge of his principal's functions as administrator and supervisor. Moreover, the teacher as much as the administrator and supervisor needs to recognize the value of democratic administration and intelligent supervision. In order that the reader may better understand the role of the secondary-school principal, we first discuss his administrative duties and then consider some of the procedures followed in effective supervision.

THE PRINCIPAL AS ADMINISTRATOR

The chief administrative functions of a school leader are to organize procedures, manage school organization and schedules, achieve desirable school-community relationships, and maintain an attitude of loyalty among pupils, school personnel, and parents. Every administrator also has some supervisory functions.

In a large city system, administrative authority is delegated to the principal by the superintendent of schools. In a school having special administrative assistants and department chairmen, there should be a clear distinction between the principal's responsibilities and the functions of others who are responsible for particular phases of the school's activities.

Basic Principles of School Administration Leadership responsibility for school activities is invested in the principal. Hence he must be sensitive to the aims and principles of education and to the welfare of pupils, teachers, and the community. Among the fundamental principles of good school administration are these:

1. School policies should be consistent with present-day educational philosophy and should reflect democratic ideals.
2. Teachers should be selected strictly on the basis of their personal and professional qualifications.
3. Education should be a co-operative enterprise, involving both faculty and students.
4. The curriculum should be planned for continuous pupil growth.
5. School buildings and equipment should be used to capacity.
6. Every pupil should be given an opportunity to participate in all educational offerings for which he is capable.
7. School policy should be formulated democratically.
8. Teachers should be assigned so that each can achieve maximum efficiency.
9. Teachers should be encouraged to exercise freedom in the performance of their duties within the limits of school policy.
10. Recommendations concerning building needs should be based on as accurate estimates of student population as can be secured.
11. An attitude of constructive evaluation should be encouraged on the part of the faculty and the student body.

Democratic Administration Although it is the responsibility of the administrator to plan activities for the school, it does not follow that he should assume the role of dictator and issue orders without consulting his aides. There should be give-and-take between him and his staff, so that the best ideas of the staff are brought to bear upon the formulation and execution of school policies. Too many administrators hesitate to give commendation for work well done. They seem to fear that by so doing they may weaken their own position, when actually their positions

are strengthened if they accept worthwhile suggestions and give credit to the teacher or teachers who offer them. Teachers like to participate in the formulation of administrative policy. They should not be allowed, of course, to assume that they alone are responsible for the school's welfare.

An example of democratic administration is the principal's cabinet. In a growing number of secondary schools, members of the subject departments (usually the chairman or his delegate) meet monthly or weekly with the administrative officers to discuss and determine school policy. In some schools each member of the cabinet brings to the attention of his teachers pertinent matters for their consideration. Through this procedure every staff member is able to share in school administration.

QUALIFICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP

The amount of training and experience required of secondary-school principals is not uniform throughout the country. Many differences exist among the various states in the professional courses required for certification.

In most school systems, certification for teaching some subject is required to become eligible for the principal's job. In addition, the candidate for a principalship usually is expected to have completed courses in college educational administration and supervision, guidance, and pupil evaluation. In this connection, one of the resolutions presented at a recent convention of the American Association of School Administrators commends colleges and universities which have developed programs in school administration and have incorporated field experience under careful guidance as an integral part of the school administrator's preparation.

Value of Experience An individual should not become the principal of a secondary school before he has had some experience as a teacher. Five years of teaching experience is a desirable minimum for the administrative head of a secondary school having more than 100 pupils. Upon appointment, the principal should receive a three- to five-year contract to give him sufficient

time to formulate and apply a policy. Principalship appointments should be made on a professional basis, not under the pressure of politics or the influence of personal friendships.

The individual who becomes head of a school should have gained experience through working with people in many situations and through travel. These activities supplement his formal education. A high degree of skill is necessary to administer and to supervise the increasingly complex American secondary school. Inspiration and professional foresight are indispensable.

ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES OF A SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Figure 7 indicates the lines of responsibility of a principal in a small school in which he also serves as a teacher. Figure 8 indi-

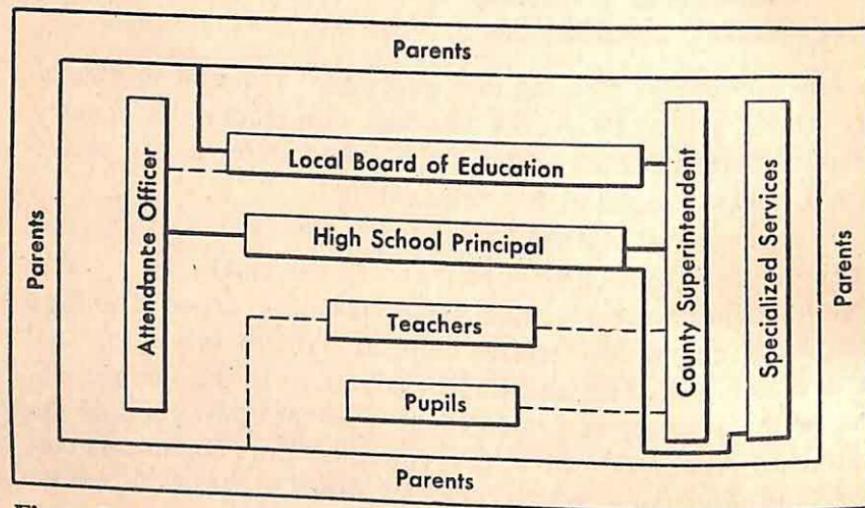


Figure 7. Lines of Responsibility in Small School Districts

cates the expanded responsibilities of principals in the schools of large cities and in consolidated schools.

How a principal carries out his duties and responsibilities will be reflected in the effectiveness of instruction. Merely to give orders for others to carry out and then not to be available for consultation on matters of importance is not successful administration. As is the principal, so is the school. His duties extend into such fields as these:

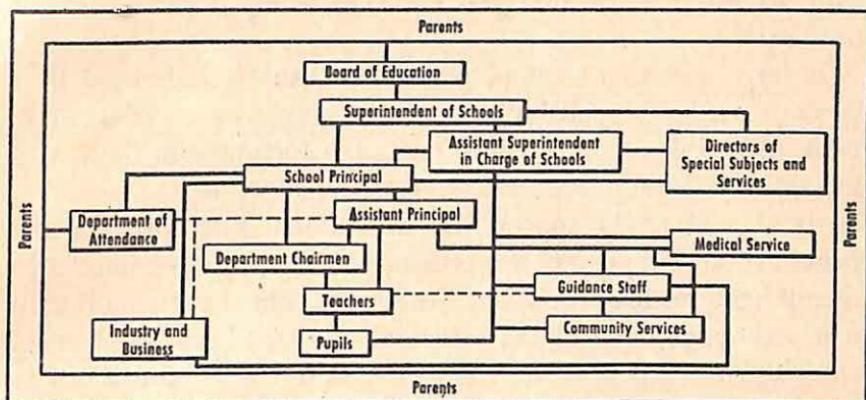


Figure 8. Lines of Responsibility in City School Districts

1. Construction of the schedule and organization of the school and its personnel
2. Fire prevention and safety drills
3. Supervision of teachers in classrooms and conferences
4. Teachers' meetings
5. Keeping school bulletin boards up to date
6. Measurement of pupil progress
7. Co-operation with department chairmen
8. Changes in courses of study
9. The general discipline of the school
10. The establishment of good public relations
11. The activities of the secretarial and custodial staffs
12. Distribution of supplies and equipment
13. Evaluation of the entire school program
14. Personal or delegated supervision of individual teachers

Effects of School Size The size of school population and the variety of curricular offerings determine in great part the kind and extent of an administrator's educational leadership. Since the principal of a small school usually carries both teaching and administrative responsibilities, he has relatively little time to devote to educational improvement. The administrative head of a large urban secondary school is more able to keep abreast of changing educational philosophy, to attempt to introduce modifications of existing offerings and teaching-learning procedures that he and his staff believe are needed, and to make certain

through supervision that desirable teaching approaches are utilized.

A large secondary-school population usually is housed in a modern, well-equipped building and is taught by an adequately paid, fully-trained staff. The principal is fortunate in that, with the assistance of other administrative and supervisory personnel, he is able to apply appropriate educational principles for the benefit of all pupils. Yet the pressure of meeting his administrative obligations may be so great that he is denied participation in one activity enjoyed by the principal of a small school—that of teaching young people. It is unfortunate for an administrator to become so far removed from classroom problems that he loses sympathetic understanding of youth-adult relationships.

Organization of Secondary-School Activities Before the school can be organized, the principal must have a clear understanding of the various component parts to be considered and included. The school schedule is an important factor in the organization of a secondary school, since it determines whether or not each teacher can be assigned to a class in which his talents are fully utilized. In an effectively organized school, the amount of time and effort devoted by the teaching staff to administration and clerical activities is reduced to a minimum.

Auxiliary activities are included in the well-thought-through plan of organization. Co-curricular or out-of-class activities should be correlated with other phases of the program. Health education, including physical examinations and intramural or extramural sports activities, must be given consideration. The larger the school, the more complex the problems associated with these activities. They are not unsurmountable, however, and should receive careful attention. Many new activities, regarded by traditionalists as fads and frills, continue to be introduced into the regular school program. These represent experimental approaches which, under wise administrative leadership, will find a respected place for themselves, will be modified to meet new conditions, or will be abandoned.

Specialists, such as nurses, doctors, dentists, psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, or visiting teachers, may be brought into the school from the community. Provision for their serv-

ices should be made in the program so that there will be a minimum of disturbance when they come to the school. An extensive program of pupil welfare includes examination, diagnosis, corrective and remedial aid, preventive measures, health instruction, and physical education. The principal, in co-operation with his teachers, decides the nature of the assistance to be given by each specialist.

Departmental organization Secondary schools are organized into departments, usually with a head or chairman for each department. This affords an opportunity for improved instruction under expert leadership in each of the subject areas. When more than one teacher is concerned with the teaching of a subject or a unit of subjects, there should be co-ordination of effort and procedure through the use of department heads. The principal can keep in close touch with these administrative officers to unify the policies of the school. He then can hold his department heads responsible for carrying out school policies as well as for effective instruction in the various subject matter areas.

Duties and responsibilities given chairmen include these:

1. Activation of departmental courses of study
2. Inter-departmental articulation
3. Recommendation of textbooks for departmental use
4. Assignment of teachers to particular subjects and classes
5. Induction and orientation of new teachers
6. Co-operation in solving departmental problems of pupil-parent-teacher relations
7. Conduct of departmental meetings
8. Evaluation of pupil achievement in the department
9. Supervision of instruction in the department
10. Liaison between the department and the principal.

The principal, other administrative aides, the chairman of guidance, and departmental chairmen often constitute the administrative cabinet of the school, which makes final decisions concerning policies and procedures. For these reasons chairmen usually are paid a bonus or a salary somewhat higher than that of a regular teacher. Many questions of co-ordination can be settled by chairmen working together as an administrative council or as the principal's cabinet. Valuable time, otherwise used

for general faculty meetings, is released thereby for other important business. In fact, the administrative council can be effective in co-ordinating the work of the entire school. If a meeting of this group is followed by department meetings, the teachers in the respective departments can be informed immediately of policies and actions that affect them and their pupils.

Organization of school plant and equipment The organization of the school for instructional purposes depends in part on the plant and its equipment or the facilities that are available. If the principal is new to the school, one of the first duties is to acquaint himself with available facilities. He considers such factors as flexibility of use; accessibility; disturbing elements, and instructional adequacy. The principal should know what alterations can be made. He should make certain that all facilities are accessible without traffic congestion. Such activities as music and sports, which may interfere with regular class work, should be located where they will be least disturbing. Provision also should be made for an adequate auditorium, a library, and a school museum.

Organization of safety drills Fire prevention is an important aspect of a school's operation. Even when careful precautions are taken, fire may break out. The principal plans effective measures to eliminate both fire and panic hazards. The alertness of the principal in performing his duties will influence the behavior of those who might be careless. Fire prevention is best achieved when all are aware of the dangers involved. After the principal has formulated safety measures, his chief responsibility is to give the kind of supervision that will insure the co-operation of everyone in the school. The foregoing suggestions apply also to air-raid drills.

Organization of the guidance program Most schools formulate a guidance policy. The principal is the active leader even if there is a chairman or head of guidance in his school. A guidance program cannot function effectively unless those in charge have complete understanding of the goals to be achieved and the techniques to be used. The wise administrator will set up an

adequate organization and give it sufficient supervision to keep it functioning efficiently.

Organization of out-of-class activities Extracurricular activities are among the most important activities engaged in by secondary-school pupils. The administrator includes sponsorship of these activities among the supervisory duties of faculty members, since clubs represent an integral part of pupil life organized and conducted under faculty guidance. The number and types of cocurricular activities vary with the number of pupils and their interests and needs. The principal is justified in subjecting each club, especially a newly-formed club, to a searching analysis. In order to evaluate clubs properly, he must know how their objectives fit into the plans and policies of the school. It is imperative, therefore, that he supervise them, with, of course, the co-operation of the faculty.

In addition to clubs there are numerous other extraclass activities that require administrative supervision. Social functions should be planned, and athletic events (intramural and extra-mural) should become a part of school life in which all pupils participate. School fraternities and sororities constitute a serious administrative problem. Most educators feel that these societies should not operate in the secondary school or in connection with the school. Hence the principal is expected to discourage all secret organizations. At the same time, he must provide adequate social activities for the pupils. Many things can be done to stimulate a desirable program. School orchestra, band, a dramatic society, and similar activities can be used to bridge the gap for adolescents between school and community life. (See Chapter 9.)

The Teacher and Administrative Procedures Very often teachers object when the administrator calls for co-operation in record-keeping and other routine jobs. As a group, they tend to be critical of demands on their time and energy for what to them seems to be added or unnecessary clerical work. They sometimes forget that effective teaching depends to some extent on the smooth performance of a great many administrative tasks.

A teacher can aid the administrator in many ways. He has definite routine responsibilities: to arrive at school on time, to keep informed about daily school requirements, to transmit administrative information to his pupils, to submit adequate and satisfactory reports when they are due, to share in guiding pupil behavior, and in every way to further the interests of the pupils and of the school as a whole. When the teacher meets all his duties and responsibilities, he is more valuable than he realizes.

Principal's Responsibility for Discipline The principal is concerned with the total development of his school—with the personal, social, and civic development of all the members of his school, teachers and pupils alike. All phases of character education and of self-discipline are in his province. To the casual observer it may seem that the principal has little to do with the discipline of the school. In fact, however, he is the most important individual in matters having to do with the development of proper pupil behavior. When trouble develops he must be prepared to accept it as partly the result of his own attitudes or procedures.

What the principal does in relation to the development of self-control among the learners determines to a great extent the general tone of the school. The principal must support the actions of his teachers and must be ready to help them meet difficult situations.

Leadership in the Community The principal is an important member of the community. He is a link between the school and the parents of the young people who attend it. In small towns or suburban areas his home probably is near the school. He and his family then can be active in community affairs and he can exercise considerable influence among community groups. In a large city, his home may be far removed from the school building; yet he should be concerned about conditions in the school neighborhood.

The principal can co-operate with community leaders in effecting needed improvements. He may become a member of a civic group interested in community welfare and himself assume active leadership responsibilities. He can be active as a member

or a leader in church activities, community chest programs, boys' clubs, Rotary, sports, or many other community projects.

The principal's first responsibility, however, is to his school. He should do whatever he can to make the community conscious of the school's program. He should encourage parents to visit the school and welcome them whether they come to air a grievance or to become better acquainted with the curriculum or the faculty. When parents visit the school either the principal or his representative should be available to see them before they confer with the teachers.

SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS

Supervision is an active process in which one person co-ordinates the work of other people, stimulates them toward more effective production, and evaluates the effectiveness of their activities. Supervision is a constructive and creative process. It not only gives an opportunity to serve but also carries with it a heavy responsibility. A supervisor must realize that the educational values of supervision depend on how he uses his authority.

Characteristics of a Good Supervisor No one can supervise the activities of others effectively if he himself has not achieved a satisfactory degree of self-control. The successful supervisor is open-minded. He possesses a clear and broad perspective. He makes decisions about procedures to be followed by a teacher only after he is sure of the value of his recommendations and the teacher's ability to use them.

Too often teachers are on the defensive when a supervisor is present. Emotional factors motivate the behavior of both the supervisor and the supervised. The supervisor must set the pace in avoiding any clashes of temperament. Although a supervisor should be a master teacher in at least one learning area, he must be ready to recognize that other teachers can achieve teaching success through techniques and procedures that differ from his. He should also be willing to admit that there may be teachers on his staff who are better teachers than he.

An outgoing, sincere attitude is one of a supervisor's strongest assets. If his manner is kind, teachers are willing to accept sug-

gestions offered for their improvement. If he becomes a petty fault-finder or a destructive critic, teachers resent both the supervision and the supervisor. He earns respect and admiration if he demonstrates that he is aware of the problems faced by the teachers and that he is willing to learn from and co-operate with his staff.

General Aspects of Supervision Supervision in the classroom includes careful study of the class situation, suggestions to improve learning conditions, and evaluation of the effectiveness of learning. In other words, the supervisor criticizes, recommends, and evaluates or appraises. The fundamental purpose of supervision in the secondary school is guidance toward improvement in teachers' attitudes and procedures. The supervisor assists the teacher through suggestion. The supervisor also strives through subtle leadership to inspire learners toward better achievement.

Preventive and Constructive Supervision The *preventive* aspect of supervision is a vital part of in-service teacher education. A supervisor who is attempting to help a beginning teacher can be guided by the following suggestions:

1. Establish friendly, professional relations.
2. Plan a conference with the teacher before the school year begins.
3. Discuss the system's educational philosophy with the new teacher.
4. Visit the class early in the term, and hold short conferences before and after the observation.
5. Arrange for the beginner's observation of successful, experienced teachers.
6. Assist in making lesson plans.
7. Appoint a successful experienced teacher to help the new teacher.
8. Help the new teacher adjust to the new home and community.
9. Give a good deal of assistance during the first term or year.
10. Recommend pertinent educational literature.
11. Distribute bulletins of general information.

Supervision by the Principal The principal's supervisory influence permeates the entire school. He sets the attitudes that prevail in the school. He guides and directs the activities of his teachers and other associates. He recognizes differing mentalities, interests, potentialities, and emotional reactions among the members of his staff. It is the responsibility of the principal to utilize these differences in such ways as to provide for the pupils the best that each member of the school personnel has to offer. Although the principal usually delegates the supervision of classroom activities to his department chairmen, he does not lose sight of his own responsibilities in that area. He makes a limited number of visits to the classrooms in order to acquaint himself with the work of the teachers and to offer them needed suggestions. His skill in stimulating his teachers to apply their time and talents to the solution of teaching-learning problems determines his effectiveness as a supervisor.

Supervision by Department Chairmen If the school is large enough to have department chairmen, the principal can delegate much of the supervision to them. Each chairman knows his subject field and the teaching techniques in it. Since he works closely with his teachers, he is more likely than the principal to know their strengths and weaknesses. The chairman has an opportunity to supervise the teacher in numerous situations not connected with the classroom and to observe the teacher's attitude toward pupils, co-workers, and supervisors.

Supervisory Procedures The supervisor should learn at first hand how the teacher works with pupils. He cannot afford to rely on hearsay. Classroom visits enable the supervisor to discover how effectively the teacher is carrying out his suggestions, as well as the kind of personal initiative exhibited by the teacher. When he observes a teacher, the supervisor should have definite objectives in mind. It is then more possible for him to obtain the teacher's co-operation in developing the educational program which he is promoting.

During the observation of the lesson the supervisor may take notes if he can do so without disturbing others. These notes should be limited to important points to be discussed later with

the teacher. No matter how ineffectual a teacher may seem to be during a supervisory visit, a wise supervisor refrains from demonstrating an improved method of conducting the lesson. He is there to observe, not to replace. It is difficult at times for a supervisor to remain quiet; yet seldom is anything gained by the interruption of the lesson, except perhaps a disgruntled feeling on the part of the teacher. Later, during a private conference, the supervisor can offer the kind of helpful suggestions that will strengthen the teacher's classroom procedures rather than weaken his morale.

Personal Conference The conference is one of the most important aspects of supervision. In the conference the supervisor evaluates the lesson plan that has been prepared by the teacher, suggests alterations for improvement, and gives encouragement to the teacher, thus enabling him to function at his best in the classroom. After the observation, the supervisor gives the teacher a written report of his observations and interprets them to him in a post-observation conference.

The follow-up conference is held soon after the lesson, but it should not take place in the classroom in the presence of pupils. Better results usually are achieved if a short time, such as an hour, a half day, or a day elapses before the teacher and the supervisor talk over the lesson. The lapse of time should not be so long, naturally, that the main aspects of the lesson are forgotten.

The experienced supervisor will list the strong points of the teaching first and then indicate any weak points, with suggestions for improvement. Even though constructive criticism is given impersonally and sympathetically, the situation is a difficult one. Teachers often feel that they should not be supervised and resent even a slight criticism of their methods. The supervisor, therefore, attempts to establish rapport with the teacher as soon as possible and to bolster his ego. When the teachers realize that he is doing this, they usually are willing to carry out his suggestions for improvement.

Teachers' Meetings The principal usually presides at teachers' meetings. These meetings are held for the following general

purposes: (1) social, (2) administrative, and (3) supervisory. It is possible and sometimes desirable to combine all three purposes in one meeting, but generally it is better administrative procedure to limit the meeting to one main purpose.

A social meeting is valuable for the new members of the staff, especially if it comes early in the school term or before the term begins. Luncheons, teas, or group visits to the home of the principal stimulate friendly relations among staff members.

Administrative meetings are needed to deal with school organization, routine matters, school policies, aspects of public relations about which all should be informed, and similar matters.

Supervisory meetings should be held more frequently than the other types, and every member of the group should actively participate in them. Here the principal faces one of his greatest challenges. If he offers leadership that inspires the faculty to engage in productive thinking, insight into school and community problems can be gained by all his teachers. Although the principal is expected to prepare the agenda for the meetings, he should encourage all members of the faculty to suggest problems for discussion. Moreover, to increase the efficiency of the staff, each teacher should be helped to discover the relationship of his duties to other school activities. This can be accomplished through committees of teachers having similar interests or problems. If ideas are formulated in small-group discussions, less time will be wasted when the entire faculty assembles to consider the issues presented by the various committees.

EVALUATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY SKILLS

Self-evaluation is not enough. It helps an administrator or supervisor improve his work if his co-workers appraise him. Adequate and objective evaluation is best achieved by a rating scale.

Evaluation of Administrative Skill An excellent appraisal form for the evaluation of the practices and skills of administration has been prepared by the faculty of New Jersey State Teachers College at Paterson. Although the form was constructed for

Table 18. Appraisal Form for School Administrators

Directions: For each item, place a check in the appropriate column.

NAME OF ADMINISTRATOR _____

	Weak	Com-petent	Super-iior	No Infor-mation
PRACTICE OF DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP	1	2	3	D
1. Shares credit for success with subordinates				
2. Motivates desirable action through commendation				
3. Shares knowledge of coming events with subordinates				
4. Gives reasons for, and interprets instructions and orders				
5. Gains respect of subordinates by behavior and character rather than command respect through "position"				
6. Is regarded as a member of the group rather than as someone outside and apart from it				
7. Encourages suggestions, evaluates them fairly, and accepts those having merit				
8. Deals appropriately with outside criticism of staff members or the organization				
ORGANIZING AND PLANNING PRACTICES	1	2	3	D
1. Attends to the over-all picture and big problems rather than becoming lost in details				
2. Attends to matters in order of importance				
3. Maintains an organization which is adapted to current needs				
4. Clearly defines duties of subordinates and prevents overlapping				
5. Delegates responsibility with the necessary authority for effective action				
6. Utilizes the resources of associates to the best advantage				
HABITS OF JUDGMENT AND EDUCATION	1	2	3	D
1. Gives decisions promptly				
2. Makes judgments only after weighing and considering pertinent evidence				
3. Makes decisions without bias and prejudice				
4. Makes decisions which later events show to be sound and reliable				
5. Characteristically makes decisions on the basis of principle rather than expediency				
6. Perceives true qualities of people				
USE OF VISION AND IMAGINATION	1	2	3	D
1. Projects trends into the future				
2. Seeks new ways and better methods				

college, it can be applied with equal success for the secondary school. The appraisal has value for teachers in helping them become more aware of the broad scope of the principal's duties and responsibilities. The evaluation lets the principal see himself

Appraisal Form for School Administrators (Continued)

	Weak	Com-petent	Super-iор	No Infor-mation
3. Recognizes and seizes opportunities 4. Recognizes experience to develop new patterns of action	1	2	3	D
SCHOLARSHIP 1. Has extensive knowledge in the field of education 2. Has extensive knowledge of a subject matter field 3. Has knowledge in broad areas of experience outside education 4. Represents and encourages thorough scholarship rather than superficiality 5. Applies scientific method in dealing with problems	1	2	3	D
COMMUNICATION OF IDEAS AND ATTITUDES 1. Has a good speaking voice 2. Inspires confidence 3. Speaks directly and concisely 4. Writes without ambiguity 5. Uses vivid and appropriate vocabulary 6. Uses correct grammar and sentence structure 7. Organizes thoughts before speaking 8. Listens as well as talks 9. Respects another's point of view 10. Keeps a discussion from wandering from the main point 11. Harmonizes conflicting points of view 12. Maintains discussion without showing or arousing antagonistic feelings 13. Communicates with colleagues and other adults without apparent condescension	1	2	3	D
RELATIONSHIPS WITH STUDENTS 1. Shows interest in student activities 2. Shows friendliness toward individual students 3. Is sensitive to student opinion 4. Is thoughtful of student welfare	1	2	3	D
CONSCIENTIOUS PERFORMANCE OF DUTIES 1. Spends an appropriate amount of time on worthwhile activities 2. Is available for conferences 3. Is anxious to help subordinates with problems	1	2	3	D

through others' eyes—always, of course, a wholesome experience. The form is presented with certain modifications.¹

¹ Kenneth B. White, "The Improvement of Educational Administration and Supervision," *Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 35, No. 3, March, 1949, p. 183. Used by permission of the author and the publisher.

Table 19. Supervisor-Rating Scale

Directions: For each item, place a check in the appropriate column.

PERSON RATED _____

DATE _____

	Low	Average			High
		1	2	3	
PERSONAL QUALITIES					
Intelligence	1	2	3	4	5
Flexibility					
Integrity					
Emotional stability					
Cheerfulness					
Courtesy					
Ability to get along with people					
Good health					
Ability to do creative thinking					
Tolerance of professional views of others					
GENERAL EDUCATION	1	2	3	4	5
Good speech					
Broad outlook and interests					
Understanding of community affairs					
Ability to express ideas					
Ability to write good English					
General cultural background					
Leadership ability					
PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION	1	2	3	4	5
Subject-matter knowledge					
Understanding of child development					
Understanding of the learning process					
Understanding of responsibilities					
Understanding of the teacher					
Knowledge of techniques of measurement					
PROFESSIONAL SKILLS	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding teaching methods and techniques					
Ability to help teachers organize material					
Ability to help teachers manage classes and groups					
Skill in techniques of motivation					
Concern with cumulative record folders					
Orientation toward well-defined goals					
Accuracy in observation and reporting					
Good judgment in school management					
SOCIAL ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS	1	2	3	4	5
Democratic orientation					
Objective analytical attitude					
Sense of social responsibility					
Participation in community affairs					
Balanced avocational interests					
PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS	1	2	3	4	5
Liking and respect for young people					
Enthusiasm for teaching and supervision					
Continuing effort for self-improvement					
Pride in the profession					
Liking for work					
Subordinating of personal convenience to professional needs					
Appreciation of the scientific method					
Modesty concerning achievement					
Desire for self-improvement					
Attitude of justice and fairmindedness					

Evaluation of Supervisory Skill The scale in Table 19 is an experimental measuring instrument for rating supervisors and supervision. Many of the items included are similar to those found in a good teacher-rating scale.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How much authority should a principal delegate to his faculty?
2. Discuss the value of day-to-day consistency in a principal's policies.
3. If there is disagreement between a department chairman and a teacher, what should be done to resolve the problem?
4. What education and experience do you believe a secondary-school principal should possess?
5. Give suggestions for better use of the auditorium.
6. What rules should be adopted for the use of the school grounds?
What responsibility has the principal for pupils' bicycles or automobiles?
7. What can be done to reduce the amount of clerical work done by the teachers?
8. What part should the principal take in school discipline?
9. What are the important considerations in the organization and administration of a job-placement program in high school?
10. What can the principal do to increase library service?
11. What are the agencies for school publicity, and how should they be utilized?
12. Prepare a list of ways in which teachers can participate in a public-relations program.
13. Why is there objection to the appointment of clerks to relieve teachers of some of their clerical work? How can clerks help teachers?
14. Which of the activities of a principal should be delegated to clerical workers? to members of the faculty?
15. What administrative qualifications should a person have in order to be selected as a principal?
16. Assuming that you are a secondary-school principal, prepare a list of standards that you would employ in selecting your teaching staff.
17. How much freedom can a principal give his faculty in selecting textbooks? in assigning marks?
18. Outline the training and experience one needs to qualify as a supervisor.

19. What are some of the most important activities of a supervisor?
20. What is meant by democratic school supervision?
21. Describe the sort of supervisor you would enjoy working with.
22. Differentiate between the kinds of supervision that should be given to a beginning teacher, a weak teacher, and an excellent teacher.
23. Describe a conference between a teacher and a supervisor after the supervisor has visited the teacher's class.
24. Should all teachers be supervised? Why or why not?

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Professional Improvement of Personnel

Nowhere is continued self-improvement more imperative than in education. No matter how thorough a school person's pre-service training may be, there are bound to be many gaps in his preparation. Educational study and research lead to changes in curriculum, teaching procedures, and general school management. Moreover, although many young people's fundamental learning needs remain relatively constant, other needs are affected by changes in our way of life, such as new occupational opportunities, increased emphasis on health preservation, expanded civic and social responsibilities. School people must be alert to these changes and continue to be learners, if they are to guide the learning of their pupils effectively.

IMPORTANCE OF CONTINUED EDUCATION AND APPRAISAL

It is extremely easy for a teacher to allow himself to get into a professional rut. His preservice preparation probably included what was then the latest approach to educational objectives, materials of instruction, teaching techniques, and administrative and supervisory organization. He needs to guard against letting these become the end of his education—he needs, in a word, to keep up with the times. Continued education keeps the teacher mentally alert. It increases his effectiveness in working with adolescents who are eager to learn all they can of the world about them; they expect a teacher to give them current answers to current questions.

Attitudes toward Change The beginning secondary-school teacher usually brings to his work a good background in the liberal arts; he knows his subject matter and has acquired some skill in teaching techniques. The temptation to continue following the general pattern with which he began is great: it usually is much easier to use the old and the tried than to experiment with the new and the uncertain. In addition, as one grows older there is a tendency to regard new ideas and methods as "new-fangled." Consequently, the older teacher may regard with suspicion and disfavor any suggestions for change. As one gains experience, he should maintain an open mind about learning material and procedures, and he should be willing to change his attitudes toward them whenever such changes seem justified.

Need of Self-Appraisal Periodically the good teacher will appraise himself to discover whether he is meeting the challenge of keeping up-to-date in all aspects of modern living. He will do well to plan a program of self-improvement based on examination of his attitudes and techniques by means of a questionnaire similar to the one presented on page 312.

MEDIA OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Professional improvement can be achieved through group activity or individual study. Among the important group-study projects are faculty meetings, teacher councils, workshops, demonstration centers, study clinics, planned visitation and observation, orientation programs for new teachers, and community activities. Individually, school people can improve themselves by reading, college study, research, writing, travel, and continued self-evaluation.

Co-operative Programs Co-operative study projects and programs are becoming increasingly popular. It is customary in many secondary schools to decide on a general subject of study for the year. Consideration may be given to such topics as adolescent problems, changing functions of secondary education, community-school relations, vocational trends, teacher welfare, pupil evaluation, and available guidance services.

Table 20. Self-Rating Questionnaire for School Personnel

Directions: Read each statement thoughtfully. Circle the number at the right of the statement which most nearly describes your present attitude or practice.

	No	Some-times	Yes
1. I follow newspaper accounts of important happenings in the world and listen to daily news bulletins over radio or television.	1	2	3
2. I am a regular reader of at least one magazine, which presents unprejudiced accounts of world events.	1	2	3
3. I attend nonpartisan political meetings.	1	2	3
4. I keep myself informed about national, state, and local legislation.	1	2	3
5. I co-operate with organizations that work for social welfare.	1	2	3
6. I keep myself informed about economic conditions.	1	2	3
7. I am interested in salary schedules of teachers throughout the country.	1	2	3
8. I am an active worker in a religious organization.	1	2	3
9. I possess an intelligent and unbiased understanding of human relationships.	1	2	3
10. I attempt to keep myself informed about the latest happenings or contributions in the field of my special teaching area.	1	2	3
11. I read at least three books a year dealing with my special subject area.	1	2	3
12. I read at least three novels a year.	1	2	3
13. I attend at least three dramatic productions a year.	1	2	3
14. I attend at least three musical programs a year.	1	2	3
15. I am selective in my choice of motion pictures and radio and television programs.	1	2	3
16. I participate in, or attend and enjoy, sports and other athletic activities.	1	2	3
17. I join friends or associates in intelligent discussions of current topics of general interest.	1	2	3
18. I take at least one course yearly in a college or university.	1	2	3
19. I keep myself informed about the results of psychological studies of learning behavior.	1	2	3
20. I regularly read at least one educational magazine.	1	2	3
21. I attempt, through reading and observation, to become acquainted with adolescents' interests, attitudes, and out-of-school activities.	1	2	3
22. I know about and am open-minded toward changes in educational ideals and policies.	1	2	3
23. I keep informed about and am willing to experiment with new curriculums and teaching techniques.	1	2	3
24. I am a member of the National Educational Association.	1	2	3
25. I am a member of one or more other educational organizations.	1	2	3
26. I am an interested participant in faculty meetings in my school.	1	2	3
27. I am willing to try out teaching techniques used successfully by my fellow teachers.	1	2	3
28. I know and use audio-visual aids available in my subject field.	1	2	3
29. I participate in constructive community activities.	1	2	3
30. I devote sufficient time each week to social and recreational activities.	1	2	3

A score of 90 is a perfect score.

The teachers in a particular field of study may hold group sessions to discuss needed changes in or additions to subject matter and improved teaching-learning procedures. In communities having colleges, the secondary-school teachers and the college instructors of the same subject may meet in group conferences to plan programs of articulation of subject matter between the two school levels.

In-Service Courses Many institutions of higher learning offer courses devised to meet the special needs of teachers who wish to continue their education. These courses are offered either on the college campus or at off-campus centers. Programs of home-study and correspondence courses also are available.

In some cities, teachers are required to continue their training in order to receive annual salary increments; hence many teachers attend local college classes during the school year or enroll in university summer sessions. The New York City Board of Education sponsors more than six hundred in-service courses, offered to teachers without cost and staffed by administrators, supervisors, and other members of the school system. The program includes both professional and liberal arts courses. Some of the liberal arts courses are only indirectly related to the teachers' specific subject fields, but have broad cultural value.

In some instances, a program of in-service courses is established to fulfill a particular educational objective. According to the National Defense Education Act (1958) there is needed in the secondary schools of every state improved educational opportunities, especially in science, mathematics, and modern languages, and in expanded guidance services. The federal government is financing institutes in certain colleges and universities to provide continued education for selected secondary-school personnel. The teachers selected for this training receive free tuition and weekly stipends.

MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

School people recognize the value of membership in professional organizations. There is strength in numbers and in working together for a common cause. Hence there are many local, state,

and national teachers' associations organized for the following purposes:

1. To advance educational ideals
2. To care for the welfare of children and young people
3. To improve teaching, supervisory, and administrative procedures
4. To safeguard the welfare of teachers
5. To improve salaries
6. To assure pension and tenure privileges
7. To secure for teachers the right to participate in educational policy-making

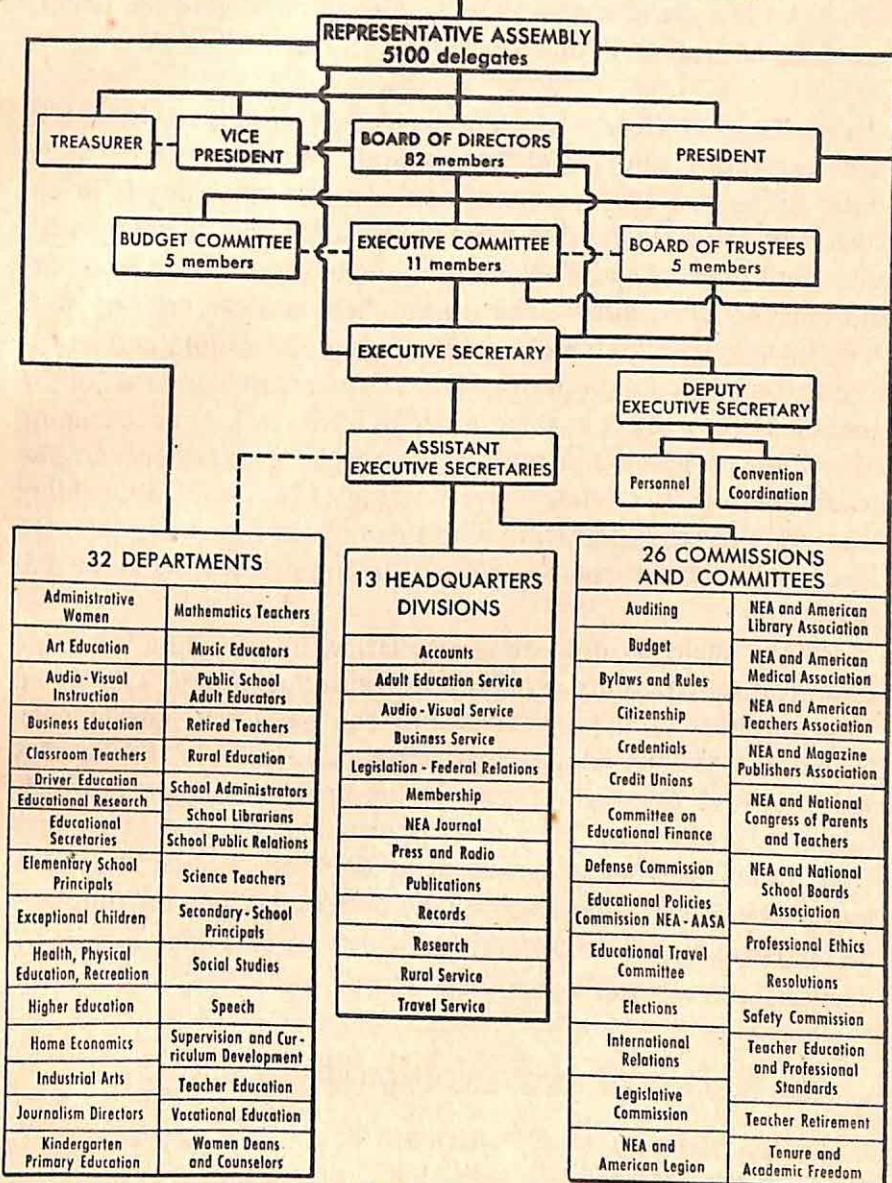
The National Education Association This organization, commonly referred to as the NEA, is the largest and most influential American educational organization, with a membership close to 700,000. Since the Association serves all educational levels and professional ranks, it includes many departments (32 at present) and divisions, each of which is composed of school people interested in a specific phase of educational organization or practice (see Figure 9).

A primary purpose of the NEA is to help teachers improve professionally. It also is becoming increasingly active in the legislative field. A monthly publication, the *NEA Journal*, brings information of general interest to members of the Association, and a general meeting of the NEA is held every summer. The special departments and divisions hold annual meetings and publish bulletins and yearbooks that have great educational value.

Other Professional Organizations Secondary-school teachers are eligible to join national, state, and local associations organized to further the special interests of school people. The national groups include such organizations as the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (a department of the NEA), the American Association of Teachers of French, Music Teachers National Association, National Council of Teachers of English, and the National Academy of Visual Instruction. In addition to the national associations there are many state and local organizations that offer much in the way of stimulation and

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES
667,120 individual members 1,366,000 affiliated members

64 STATE AND 6740 LOCAL AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS



(Driver Education and School Librarians added in 1960.) (1959-1960 NEA Handbook)

Figure 9. National Education Association of the United States

professional growth to school people in different interest or subject areas. Every teacher should learn about these professional organizations and should select those with which he would like to affiliate. Merely to be carried on the membership rolls is not enough. He should participate actively in the organization of which he is a member and thereby contribute toward the betterment of education in the secondary school.

Parent-Teacher Groups Parent-teacher groups are strong in the elementary and junior high school, but more needs to be done to interest the parents of senior-high-school pupils in co-operating with teachers to further the education of young people. Both parents and teachers profit from membership in a parent-teacher association. The parent becomes acquainted with the teachers who are guiding the learning of his child and learns about the curriculum offerings and achievement standards of the school. He thereby is enabled to share in the task of encouraging his child to get the most from his school experiences. The teacher can gain a better understanding of his pupils by meeting their parents and conferring with them about the young peoples' interests, habits in the home, and attitudes toward school and study.

When teachers show an appreciation of the value of these organizations, parents are likely to be influenced to join them. The purposes of these associations can be served best if each parent and teacher becomes an active participant in the monthly program and works co-operatively on projects aimed at furthering pupils' interests. They can sponsor and participate in such educational and social activities as debates, dances, dramatics and musical programs, and athletic events. An actively functioning parent-teacher association provides an excellent means for bringing school and community closer together.

OTHER MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT

The problem for most Americans is not so much where they can find sources of information but rather which will best serve their purposes. The problem facing the educator is no different

from that of the general public. He too must be selective in his use of available sources of information.

Books, Magazines, and Newspapers Many school people try to keep up with those writings in the field of education that have professional value. The busy teacher, however, is faced with the problem of using to best advantage the relatively little time at his disposal for general reading. If he is to be an inspiring and constructive leader of adolescent thinking, he must possess a wide and diversified background of general culture. Hence he must be universal in his reading tastes. Although he should read books, magazines, and newspapers for his own enjoyment and profit, he also must keep in mind his responsibilities as a teacher. His reading must be wide enough so that he can guide his students' reading tastes.

Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television What was said about books, magazines, and newspapers holds also for screen, radio, and television offerings. Programs should be chosen according to personal interest and time available. The tastes of adolescents also must be kept in mind, so that the teacher can discover the extent to which adolescent interests need guidance toward worthwhile programs. In those schools which provide audio-visual aids for the use of teachers and pupils, the teacher's task in the matter of developing desirable pupil interests is much lightened.

Travel The summer vacation usually is regarded rightly by most school people as a period of deserved and needed rest and relaxation. An interested and efficient teacher, however, is primarily a *teacher* for twelve months of the year. Even during his period of relaxation he combines pleasure with education. Travel, whether it is near home or in far-away lands, can be both enjoyable and profitable.

During the school year, the secondary-school teacher, alone or in the company of fellow teachers or pupils, can explore local places of interest. During his spring or winter vacations, he can visit historical or literary landmarks in his immediate environ-

ment. Returning to his classes, he can share his experiences with his pupils, thus enriching the content of his subject and stimulating his classes.

Creative Endeavors Another educational medium is creative activity. One grows as he produces. For the secondary-school teacher, that growth is likely not only to improve his worth as a teacher but also to earn for him the esteem of his adolescent pupils. The music teacher who composes a song, the art teacher who paints a picture, any teacher who writes a book or article in his field of interest, gains stature in the eyes of his associates and his pupils.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Recall two of your secondary-school teachers, one of whom was relatively young and the other much older. Compare them from the point of view of knowledge, flexibility of attitudes, and so on. What advantages had each over the other?
2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of interschool and intraschool observation among teachers.
3. Outline a series of eight topics that you believe would constitute a good educational program for one-hour faculty meetings for one school year.
4. Discuss the educational values to a teacher in your subject-matter field of participating in a curriculum-planning project.
5. As a teacher, would you prefer to take courses during the school year or to study during your summer vacation? Give reasons for your choice.
6. Become acquainted with the names and purposes of the teachers' professional organizations in your state and local community. Select two which you would like to join. Why would you like to join them?
7. Present reasons for joining the NEA.
8. What should be a teacher's attitude toward a parent-teacher association? What are some definite ways in which a teacher can participate in the activities of this organization?
9. List the names of the books you read during the past year. Classify them as fiction, general nonfiction, and professional. Name at least two books that you think you should have read.

10. List six professional magazines the reading of which would be of value to you as a teacher.
11. What are your tastes in motion pictures? in television? Name any programs you have seen during the last six months that you believe have educational as well as entertainment value.
12. List the historic landmarks, natural phenomena, or other interesting places that lie within a fifty-mile radius of your home town. How many of these have you visited?

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Guidance in Secondary Schools

From young childhood through adulthood, most people need expert assistance in meeting problems that arise from time to time. Adolescents often find themselves in situations which they are not able to handle successfully without the help of teachers, specially trained school personnel, or appropriate community agencies. Offering such assistance to young people is an important function of the secondary school.

GUIDANCE AS AN EDUCATIONAL CONCEPT

In the broadest interpretation of the term, the guidance attitude pervades all of education. As the teacher and his pupils work together for the realization of educational objectives, the teacher is guiding the pupils' learning activity. He motivates, presents material, suggests, and evaluates. Moreover, during his informal contacts with his pupils, the teacher is afforded many opportunities to help them solve some of their difficulties. Hence, on all educational levels, the teaching-learning process involves guidance.

Basically, however, the teacher's function is to set the stage for specific learning activities. Helpful as he may be in many informal ways, he has neither the time nor, usually, the training and experience necessary to assume full responsibility for a more formal guidance program. Other means must be provided if the aims of guidance are to be realized completely and successfully.

Guidance can be differentiated as *informal* and *formal*. *Informal guidance* is "on the spot" assistance given by a sympathetic and understanding teacher, parent, or other adult. A *formal school guidance program* includes all the organized activities of administrators, teachers, and specially trained personnel

which are aimed at the improvement of pupils' personal and social adjustment. The common concept in all guidance is *service*. Guidance is *not* giving directives; it is *not* making decisions for another. Rather the function of guidance workers is to help an individual develop his own point of view, make his own decisions, and manage his own activities. Recommendations and suggestions may be offered, but the individual seeking guidance must plan his own course of action and solve his own problems.

Development of the Guidance Movement Early in the century, graduates of the conventional high school who did not continue their education had trouble finding jobs. The recognition by school people of this difficulty resulted in Dr. Frank Parsons' organization of vocational guidance services in Boston. This movement spread rapidly throughout the country. Meanwhile, general social and economic unrest and World War I stimulated, in part at least, the rise of the mental hygiene movement and gave impetus to concern for the emotional and social adjustment of young people as well as of adults.

Various people have been instrumental in furthering the guidance movement through their special fields of interest. Dr. Munsterberg of Harvard encouraged the development of personnel work in industry. While helping place men in jobs for which they were best fitted, he undertook a series of job analyses. Another contribution in this field was made by Walter Dill Scott, who helped introduce a testing program in the army during World War I. Dr. William Healy exerted great influence on the beginnings of child guidance by founding a small clinic in Chicago which later became the Illinois Institute of Juvenile Research.

Organized guidance programs had their beginning in the secondary school. In colleges, especially campus colleges, only more or less formally planned personnel services were maintained. In the elementary school, since, until recently, it was believed that elementary-school children experience no serious problems of adjustment, the teachers were expected to help with minor difficulties. Except in rare instances, adults were supposed to solve their own problems. Guidance as a continuous service, available to individuals from early childhood through adulthood,

is a new concept. There are still many educators who would limit guidance programs to secondary schools and perhaps colleges.

AREAS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Guidance services in the secondary school are concerned with every phase of the growing-up process. The kind and amount of guidance needed by young people differ with age and with variations in developmental patterns. The preadolescent or young adolescent is concerned with the physical changes taking place in himself and with the impact of new school and community experiences on his attitudes and behavior. The older adolescent naturally becomes interested in and looks forward to adult activities: mate selection, vocational planning, home and community participation. Guidance activities need to be geared to these differing age interests. In addition, since the process of maturation does not follow the same rate or reach the same limit for all adolescents, guidance personnel must adapt their services to the physical, mental, and emotional characteristics of individual pupils.

Guidance services in the secondary school involve pupil experience and adjustment in educational, vocational, personal, health, and social and civic relationships. Help offered to a young person in one area will touch all phases of his personality. Success in school, on the job, or in home and social activities is related to other experiences, attitudes, and forms of behavior.

Guidance workers understand the interrelationships that exist among the various aspects of a young person's personality. They know that all students can profit from assistance in meeting their various responsibilities and that some students need a great deal of patient, understanding help.

General School Guidance Activities Whether a young person attends a four-year or a six-year secondary school, whether he is slow or bright, or whether this educational level is terminal for him or represents preparation for advanced study, he needs to be prepared to meet certain basic school experiences. It is the responsibility of the guidance personnel to inform every pupil about the following:

1. The objectives and content of various curriculums
2. The sequential pattern of specific courses
3. Organization of the school plant
4. Routine school matters, such as length of school day and recitation periods, traffic regulations, class customs, and the use of the library
5. Specific responsibilities of various members of the school staff
6. Program scheduling
7. Out-of-class activities
8. School traditions and codes of behavior
9. Study and examination techniques
10. School-home-community relationships

In addition to becoming acquainted with school offerings and procedures, each student needs to formulate at least tentative educational goals and to achieve satisfying status among faculty and student associates. A young person's counselor can be of great assistance in helping him do the following:

1. Analyze his aptitudes, interests, and ideals
2. Recognize his limitations and deficiencies
3. Select and begin to prepare for a suitable vocation
4. Form good physical and mental health habits
5. Develop unprejudiced, co-operative attitudes toward other people
6. Participate in constructive curricular and co-curricular projects
7. Cultivate wholesome peer relationships
8. Maintain proper relations with members of the opposite sex
9. Appreciate and practice good school citizenship
10. Develop some understanding of ethical and religious values

The function of guidance in the secondary-school procedures is described by Kenneth Lund, Superintendent of Schools, Oak Park-River Forest High School District, Oak Park, Illinois.

The guidance point of view should have a primary place in the strategy of administration and curriculum planning. Student personnel services and the intellectual understandings on which they are

founded must undergird all our educational thinking. . . . The guidance point of view must be represented in the original deliberations in which curricular plans and administrative policies are formulated. Only in this manner can we guarantee that full consideration will be given to the implications of the wide range of individual differences, to the students' needs and the relation of needs to the learning potential, and to the necessity for appropriate evaluative techniques. . . .

It is through the guidance service that the school reaches into the home and integrates the influences of home and school into a unified, effective program for the student. Guidance takes cognizance of the fact that the teacher of each class faces students with a wide range of individual abilities; it provides the teacher with basic materials for effective grouping for instruction. The guidance service highlights the fact that educational programs are effective only when they make possible an optimum growth for each student and when the instructors are provided with the basic information about each student necessary for planning an instructional program to attain these goals. Through guidance services, students get the assistance which helps them develop problem-solving abilities adequate to meet their current challenges and the problems ahead of them. Guidance is the process whereby all the educational staff is continually reminded that young people have needs other than academic needs. Guidance emphasizes that an effective organization of a secondary school must provide for each person in terms of his needs for acceptance, affection, a feeling of belongingness, and his strong need to taste success and to accomplish adequately.¹

GUIDANCE AS ORIENTATION

Finding a place for himself in a new school situation can be a trying experience for the new secondary-school pupil, whether he comes from an eight-year elementary school to a senior high school, a six-year school to a junior high school, or a junior high school to a senior high school. He should learn as much as he can about his new school (see ten points listed on page 325), but various aspects of personal adjustment that need to be handled

¹ K. W. Lund, "Student Personnel Services in the High School," in F. S. Chase and J. A. Anderson, eds., *The High School in a New Era*, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1958, pp. 325-6. Copyright 1958 by the University of Chicago.

by guidance personnel and teachers require more than the imparting of information.

Adjustment Needs During his early school days, the child learned to adjust to the activities and requirements of the elementary school. Continued good adjustment in the secondary school depends on his being helped to meet the challenge of new conditions and situations, such as the following:

1. Entering new social groups
2. Adapting himself to a different type of school organization
3. Having new teachers, who are subject-matter experts, and adjusting to new methods of teaching
4. Pursuing subjects different from those studied earlier
5. Finding a somewhat more impersonal attitude on the part of his teachers
6. Experiencing a greater degree of freedom of conduct and greater responsibility for meeting academic requirements
7. Deciding on a program of studies related to his vocational interest and aptitude
8. Coping with adolescent urges and desires
9. Participating in the out-of-class activities of the school
10. Breaking away from his attachments to his former school and achieving a feeling of loyalty to his new school

Most elementary-school graduates are eager to enter the secondary school. Yet their ideas about the new school usually are vague and based on the stories they hear from their older associates. Realistic preparation for the secondary school can well start before pupils enter and continue during their first year in the school.

Orientation Activities School people recognize the value to children and adolescents of school orientation. In many school systems, the elementary-school counselor, the teacher of the graduating class, or the junior-high-school counselor points out to the pupils some of the differences between their present school and the one which they soon will enter. Secondary-school personnel conduct orientation programs that serve the entering

pupils. Suggestions for these orientation programs are presented here.

Develop friendly relations with prospective pupils To acquaint prospective pupils with the new school, secondary-school personnel invite a group of lower-school pupils and their advisers to a meeting at the school once each term or year. The group from each feeding school is met by pupil leaders of the secondary school and taken on a tour of the building. During the tour, the leaders answer questions and then escort the prospective pupils to a central meeting place where refreshments and entertainment are provided.

The representatives take back to their schools copies of the school paper and other materials which will acquaint their classmates with the curriculums and activities of the secondary school. The friendly relations thus established will help the young entrants, when they enroll as pupils, to feel that they are beginning their higher-school life among friends.

Develop friendly attitudes through freshman conferences During the first term in the school, every pupil meets his grade counselor in a weekly group conference. During these conferences the young people learn about course sequences and school activities in which they may participate. They are given training in methods of study. In these informal conferences, each pupil is encouraged to ask questions and to consult his counselor privately about personal problems.

Develop friendly attitudes between seniors and new entrants The new pupil is assigned a senior, who acts as "big brother" or "big sister." This senior has a copy of the new pupil's program, as well as a general idea of his mental ability. With this information as a background, the senior can follow his freshman's progress through the term, meet him for individual conferences, help him improve his study habits, introduce him to various school activities, and report to the counselor any situations or problems which may need special consideration.

At the end of the term, each senior guide is called upon to

submit to the counselor a brief case report on his freshman, including such facts as may be of value to the freshman's counselor or teachers. Both the seniors and the freshmen can derive benefits from this co-operative activity.

ORGANIZATION OF A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The form of a school guidance program depends on the specific guidance needs of the pupils, the size of the school, and the funds available. In all cases, however, certain fundamental principles should be understood and put into practice as efficiently as possible.

Basic Principles of Guidance In modern education the general acceptance of the need for guidance is based on an understanding of the psychological principle of individual differences. If all adolescents were alike in all phases of their development, education would be a relatively simple matter. The kind of individual that society considers desirable could be determined and a formula intended to produce that type of person could be applied to all pupils with the expectation of achieving desired results. Fortunately or unfortunately, the production-line technique used in industry cannot be applied to education. Society may set and maintain its standards of what an educated person should be like, but the extent to which and the ways in which these standards are met through the educative process vary with the human materials with which educators must work. The growth of the secondary-school population during the present century has resulted in increased efforts among school people to take cognizance of the differences in ability, interest, and background of the pupils.

It is another principle of guidance that consideration must be given to all phases of the adolescent's complex personality. The high school is not educating or guiding youthful intellects only. It is helping the pupil develop *whatever* potentialities he possesses. Equally important, the school must recognize the principle that each individual is important to himself and to others. He has a specific place in world affairs.

Organizational Principles The success of the guidance program depends in great part on knowing and applying the following principles of organization:

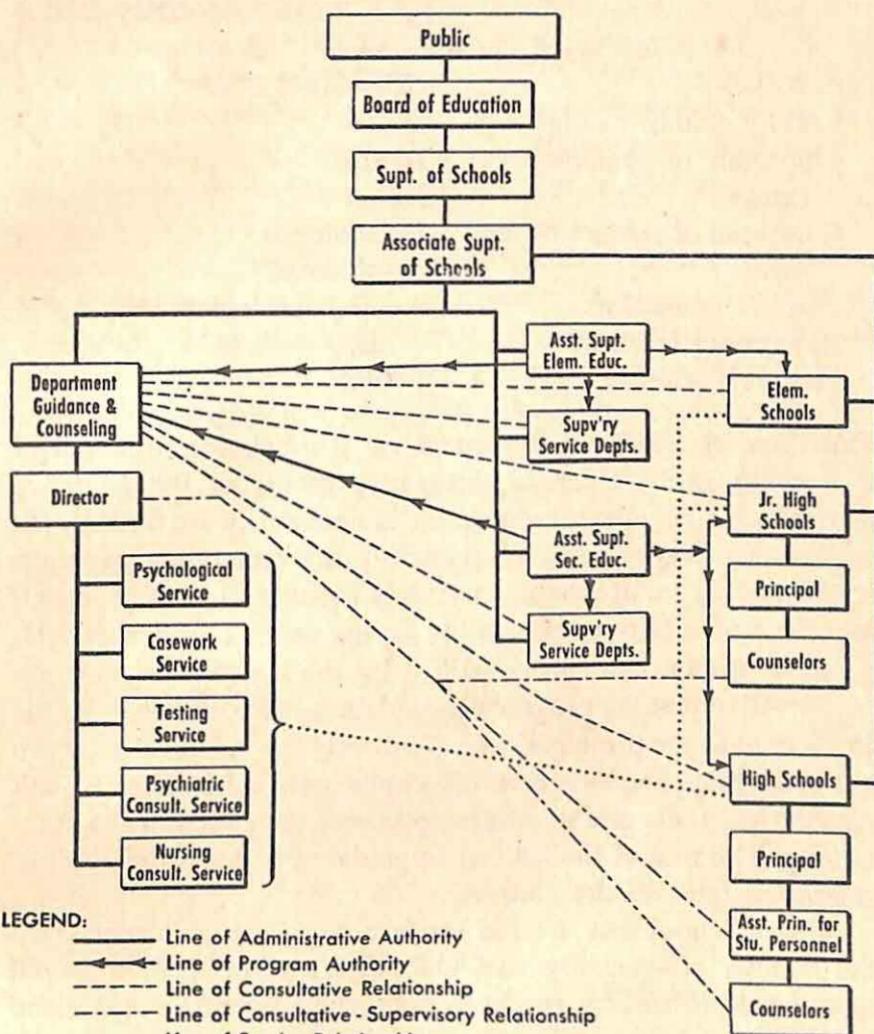
1. The organization and conduct of a guidance program are the responsibilities of the principal of the school but may be delegated to others.
2. The efficiency of the school's guidance services depends in great part on the extent to which all members of the teaching staff are guidance-minded.
3. The guidance personnel should be professionally trained.
4. Guidance specialists and the faculty as a whole must work together.
5. Provision should be made for adequate facilities and equipment.
6. There should be included an adequate program of testing and record-keeping.
7. The relationship between the guidance program and the educational policy of the school should be clearly defined.
8. The program should be built upon and articulated with the guidance activities of feeding elementary schools and should include co-operation with colleges and work fields.
9. The encouragement of pupil, parent, and community co-operation is extremely important.
10. The guidance program should be evaluated constantly in the light of changing educational ideals.

The task of organizing the program can be carried on by faculty committees. Each committee assumes a specific responsibility, such as guidance needs of the school population; guidance and the curriculum; out-of-class activities; occupational and educational opportunities; job placement and follow-up; school, home, and community co-operation; teacher education in guidance.²

In some school communities the continuity of guidance services through the elementary- and secondary-school levels is

² For a detailed description of the committee approach to guidance, see E. C. Roeber, G. E. Smith, and C. E. Erickson, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1955.

CHART OF RELATIONSHIPS



(L. D. Crow and Alice Crow, *Introduction to Guidance*, 2nd ed., American Book Company, New York, 1960, p. 65.)

Figure 10. Department of Guidance and Counseling, Tucson, Arizona, Public Schools

maintained by a central office, which is responsible for the co-ordination of services on each level and their articulation between levels. Figure 10 shows a model guidance program, including definite lines of authority and responsibility.

GUIDANCE PERSONNEL

A well-organized guidance program in the secondary school includes the co-ordinated activities of the following:

Principal	Attendance officer
Faculty guidance committee	Doctor
Chairman of guidance (or dean)	Dentist
Chairman of subject departments	Nurse
Teacher counselors	Psychologist
Homeroom teachers	Psychiatrist
Subject teachers	Appropriate community agencies
	Parents

Functions of Guidance Personnel Though the principal of the school is the chief administrative officer of the guidance program, his guidance responsibilities necessarily are limited. He implements the program, directs policy, and supervises activities; but, except in small schools, he rarely engages in active counseling. For best results, responsibility for the various services is delegated to trained persons (certified by the state) who function co-operatively in the program of guidance and counseling. In the small school, the principal not only directs the guidance program but also may need to counsel pupils and work closely with teacher assistants and any other guidance personnel in the community. The role of the teacher in guidance is given special consideration later in the chapter.

How a school can use the services of specialists depends on the number of specialists available. Every young person should have his health cared for by a competent doctor, dentist, and nurse. The extent to which health care should be the responsibility of the parent rather than of the school, however, is a matter concerning which there still is disagreement among educators and the public. It would seem that a nurse, at least, should be included in the staff of an average-size school—to meet emergencies, if for no other reason.

If the school has an extended testing program, the services of a trained psychologist are desirable, so that measuring can be administered and interpreted. In no school, however large, is there need for a full-time psychiatrist, though the part-time services of a community psychiatrist should be available.

The Community and School Guidance Community welfare organizations, civic and industrial agencies, and health and youth clinics have an important place in the guidance program of any school. The adjustment problems of individual pupils sometimes are too serious to be treated by school counselors. Constant and close co-operation between all community agencies and the school is a definite must for an actively functioning guidance program.

Parents, too, should participate in the guidance program. Often they may be the direct or indirect cause of adolescent difficulties. They themselves may seek help in solving young people's problems of adjustment, and they can be extremely effective in preventing youth problems, if they understand what the school is attempting to do for their children and if they recognize the value of co-operation with the school staff.

The Pupil and Guidance Next we consider the pupils themselves, who are supposed to be the recipients, but sometimes become the victims, of all the services offered in the name of guidance. The pupils need to be made aware of the kinds of service that are offered. They should be encouraged to avail themselves freely of these services. Most important, they should recognize the value to themselves of whatever help they seek and obtain. In brief, pupils themselves should become guidance conscious.

GUIDANCE PROCEDURES

The pupil may be guided through *group* situations or he may receive *individual* guidance or counseling. Specific procedures are these:

1. Testing programs
2. Case studies
3. Interviews
4. Programs of orientation
5. Clinical procedures
6. Guidance in group situations
7. Exploratory courses
8. Job placement
9. Follow-up

The first three of these—testing programs, case studies, and interviews—are discussed in Chapters 18 and 19. No guidance program can be effective unless these techniques are used. Programs of orientation were described earlier.

Child-guidance Clinics Clinical procedures should be used only by specialists, such as those on the staffs of child guidance or educational clinics. In most city school systems and in some district systems, pupils who show signs of serious emotional disturbance are referred to a clinic for observation and therapy. The school's share in the therapy usually is to make curricular adjustments and to follow clinical recommendations.

Guidance in Group Situations The uninitiated often think that guidance consists only of face-to-face counseling or interviewing. Although individual counseling is very important, guidance in group situations can be helpful for all young people. Conference courses dealing with educational and vocational opportunities and human relationships are extremely valuable. In some high schools, all eleventh- and twelfth-grade students are required to take a course in general psychology. Such a course, including the application of psychological principles to day-by-day living, is especially helpful to those adolescents who will not go on to an institution of higher learning.

Probably during the tenth grade in high school, all pupils should become acquainted with the entrance requirements, curriculums, and costs of colleges in which they may be interested, as well as with the occupational opportunities available to them. Such survey courses taken at this time give pupils a chance to plan the rest of their high-school programs in accordance with the interests they develop as a result of their study of vocational opportunities. For the students who plan to continue their education beyond the secondary school, the responsibility of the school usually includes adjusting curriculums to meet specific college-entrance requirements and submitting transcripts of records to the selected colleges.

Exploratory Courses Some secondary schools have "tryout" courses for ninth-grade pupils. Such courses as general science, general language, and general mathematics help counselors and

pupils discover individual interests and abilities. Other "exploratory" courses, such as machine shop, metal work, and wood work, are offered also. These special exploratory courses are generally offered in junior high schools, but are found in some four-year-high schools as well.

Job Placement If possible, there should be a specially trained vocational counselor, whose duties are (1) to find suitable jobs in the community for the graduates, (2) to match jobs and individuals so that each is suitable for the other, (3) to train young people in the techniques of job application, and (4) to co-operate with local, state, and private agencies. Another responsibility of the placement counselor, especially in large cities, is to find part-time jobs for pupils who need or wish to work while attending school.

Follow-up Another important guidance responsibility, one sometimes almost impossible to carry out, is the follow-up of graduates and drop-outs. One method of evaluating the efficacy of a school's instructional and guidance programs is the success of former pupils. Much time, energy, and money must be expended to set up and conduct an efficient follow-up program. This usually costs more than most high schools can afford. There may also be considerable waste connected with the project; for example, questionnaires sent to former pupils often are not returned. Another problem involves the number of years that should elapse between the follow-up letters. In addition, summarizing the results of these letters is a difficult task. The use to be made of the results also may become a problem. Nevertheless, in spite of the difficulties inherent in this guidance practice, some form of systematic follow-up is desirable and is welcomed by many former pupils. A large, active alumni association can help with some of the work.

Some follow-up practices are the distribution of questionnaires, close co-operation with colleges and other post-high-school institutions in which the school's graduates are enrolled, visits by teachers or guidance workers to business firms or industrial plants in which graduates are employed, and a semi-annual or annual open house for graduates.

THE TEACHER AND GUIDANCE

The teacher is the core of any guidance program, no matter how simple or elaborate that program may be. In his day-to-day contacts with students the teacher has a unique opportunity to make constructive contributions; however, it should not be assumed that the teacher can or should be able to meet and solve all problems. The guidance specialist is trained to deal with difficult personal problems which require more time or greater professional understanding than a teacher is expected to possess. Professional services usually are available to the teacher, and he should feel free to make referrals to professional workers.

Specific Responsibilities The specific activities engaged in by teachers usually include homeroom duties, recitation or subject-class responsibilities and, in some instances, grade counseling or advising. Whatever the teacher's specific guidance function may be, his success with his students depends in great part on his friendly, personal interest in each pupil, his intelligent insight into adolescent problems of adjustment, and his willingness to co-operate with the staff of the guidance department.

Homeroom guidance In many schools, the daily homeroom period, usually ranging from fifteen to twenty minutes in length, is filled with too many activities. The teacher checks attendance and reads official notices. Some pupils leave the room to participate in activities elsewhere. Pupils from other classes come in for one purpose or another. Last-minute lesson preparation must be attended to or bits of gossip exchanged. Little time is left for what can be termed guidance during a short homeroom period. It is a custom in most secondary schools, therefore, to set aside, either weekly or biweekly, one homeroom period of about forty-five minutes to be devoted to guidance activities.

There are at least two methods of using the long homeroom period:

A period of informal discussion, during which the teacher and pupils consider matters of immediate interest to the group.

A period devoted to discussions based on a planned program of guidance.

The success of the homeroom period depends to a great ex-

tent on the maturity of the pupils, the amount of subject-matter preparation required of them, and the teacher's ability to win the co-operation of his group. Free, informal discussion periods are stimulating and worthwhile if they are led by an interested, ingenious teacher who knows young people and their interests. It helps if the young people themselves have confidence in the teacher's judgment and are thereby motivated to bring their questions and problems to him. The chief weakness of informal discussion periods is that many important topics may be omitted and relatively trivial matters given undue attention.

The third procedure—the development during the homeroom period of a planned program of group guidance—is probably the most desirable, if it is well organized, suited to the pupils' needs, interests, and abilities, and carried on as a co-operative venture. In some schools, selected teachers and pupils serve as a committee to arrange a program of homeroom guidance. Topics considered might include health, planning for college, choosing a vocation, correct dress and manners, and home and social relationships.

The conduct of the discussion period is as important to its success as is the selection of topics to be discussed. For the teacher to stand before the group and talk on and on may have disastrous results. The pupils are tempted to take care of last-minute study preparation, carry on conversations with their neighbors by way of sign language, or count the seconds until the ringing of the bell releases them from boredom. Teacher ingenuity must be exercised. Pupil-led discussions, question boxes, dramatized presentations, oral reports based on individual pupil research, and similar attention-keeping devices should be employed and should be varied from meeting to meeting. The conduct of homeroom activities is both a responsibility and a challenge.

Guidance and the recitation teacher The successful recitation teacher not only is a master of his subject matter but also is sensitive to his pupils' learning needs, abilities, and interests. He arouses pupils' desire to learn and helps them develop good study habits. He is objective and understanding. He is aware of the potential abilities and disabilities of individual pupils; he recognizes symptoms of incipient maladjustment and reports his

observations to the proper member of the staff; he co-operates wholeheartedly with counselors and homeroom teachers.

The Teacher As a Grade Counselor or Adviser Many secondary schools can afford the services of only one full-time state-certified counselor. His main function is to co-ordinate the school's guidance program. Most of the actual counseling is done by interested teachers, preferably those having some guidance training, who are assigned to the task by the principal. According to the size of the school and the guidance needs, the part-time counselor devotes from five to fifteen periods a week to advising a group of pupils ranging in number from 50 to 500. Obviously, the number of periods and the size of the group influence the effectiveness of the guidance given by a teacher-counselor who also is a recitation teacher.

The grade counselor or adviser carries on many activities: program scheduling; vocational counseling; assisting in the administration and correction of standardized tests and the recording and interpretation of results; sponsoring out-of-class activities; interviewing pupils with special problems; conferring with parents, the guidance co-ordinator, and representatives of outside agencies; participating actively in any project that affects the welfare of some or all of his group. Since the part-time counselor has a teaching schedule as well as guidance responsibilities, there may be difficulty in finding time for meeting pupils, parents, or other persons with whom he may wish to confer. Consequently, his counseling activities often begin before the start of the regular school day, include his lunch period, and continue after school hours.

The most difficult aspect of the part-time counselor's work is dealing with the personal problems of his counselees. The teacher-counselor usually is qualified to help pupils solve simple personal problems involving appropriate dress and manners, dating, part-time work, brother-sister relationships, adolescent friendships, or health conditions. Some young people bring all their troubles to a teacher-counselor in whom they have confidence. Other adolescents are wary of teachers and will not confide in them. The teacher-counselor may need to be indirect and persuasive with pupils who either do not recognize their need for help or who seem unwilling to seek assistance. In any case, the

grade adviser or counselor must recognize his counseling limitations. He works closely with the full-time counselor or guidance co-ordinator, referring young people to trained personnel and following the specialists' suggestions.

MODEL PROGRAM

We present the Providence, Rhode Island, program here as an example of sound theory and practice. Adolescent needs are listed; the procedures for meeting these needs are spelled out. This document summarizes and illustrates many of the points made in this chapter.

GUIDANCE IN THE PROVIDENCE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A Brief Statement of the Principles which Underlie its Purpose and its Procedures

Guidance, a Pupil Service

As applied to the secondary schools of Providence, guidance is an organized service designed to give systematic aid to pupils in making proper adjustments to problems of an educational, vocational, social, civic, and personal nature. As such, it is not an isolated bureau or department, but an accepted and integral part of the school administration and curriculum. Its purpose is to adapt the schools as far as possible to the needs of each pupil, and to help each pupil to make the most of his opportunities.

It seeks to help the pupil to know himself, to become aware of his own limitations, and to develop his interests and abilities through intelligent educational offerings. All emphasize the need of a well-planned system of guidance for young people in a complex world.

The most desirable theory with respect to individual differences among pupils requires modern secondary schools to study each pupil as an individual, to discover his particular traits and abilities, and to assist him in achieving the maximum development of which he is capable.

General Nature and Organization of Guidance

The heart of the guidance program is a specially selected and trained counselor who carries on a continuous study of individual differences of a class of pupils for their entire three years of school. This counselor has an individual interview at least once each term with every pupil, supervises the compilation of a personnel record

for every pupil, and teaches the entire class in group guidance for two periods a week for three years.

The counselor has the assistance of such supplementary guidance services in the central office as visiting teachers, central records office, psychiatric clinic, psychological and educational testing service, placement office and occupational coordinators.

In brief, the guidance service seeks:

1. To help pupils to evaluate their natural aptitudes, interests, and capacities in formulating proper educational and vocational plans.
2. To help pupils to select and to make progress in subjects which develop natural aptitudes, interests, and capacities.
3. To help pupils to understand the factors which condition their success and to aid individuals in making necessary adaptations and adjustments.
4. To help pupils to become aware of educational and occupational opportunities, and to help them in taking advantage of such opportunities.
5. To help pupils to discover and to develop worthy leisure time interests.

The group guidance course—approximately two hundred and forty pupil-counselor hours—includes units in educational and vocational opportunities, human relations, occupations, civics, and the measurement of their own abilities and interests.

The guidance service is organized as follows: at its head is an assistant superintendent in charge of research and the guidance services. He is assisted by supervisors in charge of such special services as attendance and discipline, placement, psychological examinations and clinic, and educational measurements, and the Central Records Office. In the senior and junior high schools, at least six counselors—one for each of the grades—function under the direction of a department head. . . .

Procedures in Guidance

The following procedures are those which should function in a well-organized guidance program in a junior or senior high school.

1. Providing pupils with adequate information about the school and its offerings.
2. Studying in-coming groups before their arrival and making adequate plans to insure their proper adjustment.

3. Seeking to organize the individual programs of pupils so that the work may be as continuous as possible from one year to another.
4. Making proper adjustments for exceptional pupils passing from one school to another.
5. Understanding the factors which occasion promotion from one school to another.
6. Reporting to the lower school on scholastic progress and outstanding achievements of its pupils.
7. Guiding pupils in such matters as the aim and purpose of the school, traditions and codes of conduct, and the purposes and objectives of various courses.
8. Planning a sequence of studies for each of the school years and selecting appropriate pupil activities to supplement such studies.
9. Analyzing study difficulties and helping the pupil to find his solution.
10. Guiding pupils in the selection of post-secondary schools, and helping them to qualify for entrance.
11. Conducting a pupil accounting system with complete records of school achievement and other facts. . . .
12. Acquainting pupils with a variety of occupational opportunities—their nature and requirements.
13. Helping pupils to select an occupation in the light of its demands and the abilities, interests and limitations of pupils.
14. Pointing out to pupils who are planning to withdraw from school the possibilities of continuing education on a part-time basis.
15. Maintaining co-operative relationships with the school placement office.
16. Organizing and directing visits of small groups to factories, places of business, and other occupational centers.
17. Assisting pupils to develop interests, attitudes, and skills which have recreational value, and encouraging the wise choice of leisure activities.
18. Using appropriate tests to measure the educational growth of pupils as a basis of counseling and adjustment.
19. Providing self-measurement tests to permit pupils to inventory their own abilities, interests, capacities.

20. Making case studies of individual pupils presenting special problems and adjusting the program to meet needs revealed by such studies.
21. Interviewing parents, teachers, and classmates of pupils whenever such interviews may be helpful in the pupil's development.
22. Counseling with pupils on the basis of test results.
23. Helping pupils to develop an understanding of proper social usage.
24. Helping pupils to develop desirable attitudes in regard to boy and girl relationships.
25. Helping pupils to determine appropriate personal goals, and to make wise choices in personal matters.
26. Helping pupils to develop an understanding of their citizenship privileges and responsibilities.
27. Helping pupils to develop discrimination in choosing leaders and to recognize qualities required for leadership in various activities.
28. Helping pupils to analyze their own deficiencies and limitations and seeking their cause and correction.
29. Helping pupils to develop good study and work habits.
30. Helping pupils to develop the ability of self-direction in school, civic and social affairs, and later in seeking and securing employment.
31. Carrying on follow-up studies of graduates and applying facts learned to current guidance situations.

Outcomes of Guidance

A good guidance program achieves these results:

1. A high rate of retention of pupils in school and a high incidence of part-time education by those who withdraw.
2. The creation by pupils of long-time planning programs.
3. Understanding of occupational problems and opportunities.
4. Wise decisions by pupils concerning post-school plans.
5. Objective evidence regarding the educational growth of individuals.
6. Awareness by teachers of pupil abilities, interests, and capacities so that the educational program may be individualized.

7. Cordial relations between school and colleges, and between school and industry.
8. The extensive placement of pupils in local occupations.
9. Ability in self-direction by pupils in securing jobs, in social and civic participation, and in the use of leisure.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Plan a class debate on the topic "All education is guidance."
2. Indicate specifically the guidance implications of your own subject-matter field.
3. From your own experiences, cite examples of guidance that seemed to you to be *direction*.
4. What is meant by self-realization?
5. Formulate what you would consider a good definition of guidance.
6. Summarize in your own words the basic principles of guidance.
7. Indicate what might be accomplished by conferences held jointly by guidance counselors of a senior high school and the counselors of its feeding schools.
8. List at least five differences that can be found among adolescents.
9. What is meant by the education of the whole person? Be specific.
10. Why should members of the guidance staff take continued in-service training?
11. What are some of the phases of long-term pupil planning for which provision should be made in the secondary school?
12. Present arguments for and against counselors' continuing to do some classroom teaching.
13. Enumerate nonguidance school activities for which the guidance office often is made a "dumping ground."
14. How may a loosely organized guidance program lead to duplication of guidance effort?
15. What are some problems which a guidance program might not be able to handle effectively?
16. As you consider the organization of guidance services presented in this chapter, review your own guidance experiences. Indicate ways in which the guidance program of your secondary school was (1) adequate, (2) inadequate.
17. Why may an elaborate guidance program be less effective than one more simply organized?
18. Evaluate the following statement: "The dean or guidance chairmen should not be the school disciplinarian."

19. Show by reference to your own community the kind and extent of participation in the guidance program that should be undertaken by various community agencies and organizations.
20. Defend the thesis that testing programs, case studies, and interviews are integral factors of a guidance program.
21. If, upon entering secondary school, you participated in an orientation program, evaluate its worth to you. What should be the value of a program of this kind?
22. What is your attitude toward exploratory courses?
23. What do you think should be the functions served by a homeroom period?
24. Outline a semester's program of homeroom guidance suitable for first-year secondary-school pupils.
25. Make as complete a list as you can of all the types of teacher guidance which you had in secondary school.

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The Development of Behavior Controls

In today's schools, both teacher and pupils are active participants in every classroom situation. A better understanding of adolescent psychology on the part of teachers and a greater appreciation of the values of learning by secondary-school students have done much to bring about a change in the concept of discipline from forced obedience to wholesome individual development under sympathetic guidance.

SELF-DISCIPLINE

Self-control is one of the most important goals of the developing individual. As he lives in a social situation he must learn, and adjust to, the habits, thinking, and general mores of the group. He must learn to give and take in the struggle for self-realization, to recognize that he cannot do as he pleases all the time or even much of the time. He must learn that to become an accepted member of the group he must often defer to the wishes and interests of others.

In the classroom, young people try to achieve definite goals. To accomplish this purpose, they must co-operate with each other and with the teacher. Each learner should know the rules of behavior and understand the reasons for them. It is natural for an individual to want to satisfy his drives and urges in his own way and to his greatest pleasure, but he must learn that others also have interests, desires, and urges, and that he must keep in check any activity that will interfere with the approved activity of others.

A person who controls his emotions possesses behavior habits that are of great value to him in his relationships with other

people. He is able to change habitual behavior that interferes with his welfare and the welfare of others. In his struggle for social acceptance and success, he should achieve the kind of behavior that will identify him as a person who has self-control, who is *self-disciplined*.

Importance of Early Training A child should be encouraged in the home to practice acts of self-control that will benefit him in school groups or social groups outside the school. It is important also for him to develop habits of adaptability, since groups differ in their demands upon individuals.

A boy or girl must learn early that the teacher needs the co-operation of all members of the class if teaching and learning are to progress successfully. Since an adolescent is not able unaided to attain satisfactory control of his behavior, he needs teacher guidance. Hence the teacher should utilize the techniques, discussed later in this chapter, that are necessary to bring about co-operative behavior on the part of all the members of his class. These techniques should stimulate pupils to strive toward the achievement of self-discipline. Parents and teachers share the responsibility for helping young people develop desirable attitudes toward behavior control.

Basic Principles of Classroom Discipline Classroom behavior can be analyzed in the light of the reasons for the behavior, the teacher's attitude toward the behavior, and the effect of the behavior on the learning process. For example, the *amount of noise* in a classroom may not be so important as the *cause* of that noise; what is confusion in one situation may be orderly procedure in another. The significant question is whether all members of the group are progressing toward the educational goals.

An application of the following general principles will help adolescents establish desirable behavior habits:

1. Each pupil should be stimulated by a plan of action that will result in the achievement of a worthwhile goal.
2. Classroom rules should be understood by all learners.
3. Learners should know that an infringement of rules and regulations warrants some kind of penalty.
4. Pupils should not be expected to remain quiet for the sole purpose of being orderly.

5. Classroom conditions should encourage pupils to want to co-operate.
6. School and classroom living should reflect out-of-class life situations so that class activities will help prepare young people to participate in social group activity in or out of school.
7. Habits essential to the attainment of self-control should become automatic as early as possible.
8. Engaging in desirable forms of activity is more important in a group situation than maintaining complete silence.
9. Pupil activity should be the aim of every classroom teacher.
10. Activities should be planned for learners in accordance with their special talents and interests.
11. Pupil conduct should be the joint responsibility of the pupils and the teacher, the teacher necessarily having the authority in the group.
12. The teacher should place responsibility upon pupils individually and collectively to the extent of their demonstrated ability to assume it.
13. Adolescents should practice the same good behavior in the classroom that they are expected to exhibit in their homes.
14. Pupils should share in the routine management of the class.

BEHAVIOR AND THE DEMOCRATIC IDEAL

Fundamental to constructive living in a democracy is an appreciation of the balance that exists between an individual's rights and responsibilities. As an adolescent struggles to achieve recognition as an individual, he is likely to stress his rights and to disregard his responsibilities to those with whom he is associated. One of the primary functions of the secondary school is to help pupils understand their democratic heritage and develop habits of self-disciplined behavior.

The Need of Teacher Leadership Society delegates to its leaders the task of directing the behavior of its members in certain

situations and under certain conditions. Leadership authority is invested in school administrators and classroom teachers. The pupils must learn to follow intelligent teacher leadership and to develop effective leadership qualities themselves in peer-group activities.

Teachers must be resourceful as they attempt to encourage the kind of behavior control that will serve learners in the society in which they now are living and in which they expect to live. This does not mean that some authoritative requests should not be obeyed promptly. Every adolescent, however, should progress gradually from obedience to directions given and decisions made by others to intelligent decision-making and self-direction.

Making Intelligent Use of Authority The teacher represents authority. Yet he can lose his authority: a chairman or principal, higher in rank than the teacher, may enter the classroom and take over the class, or the teacher may use his authority unwise and find that the pupils have lost their respect for him. The wise teacher, seeking opportunities which will train young people to meet responsibilities successfully, may delegate part of his authority to those pupils who show by their behavior that they deserve the trust placed in them. When a secondary-school pupil is given responsibility, he should recognize that he is still under the leadership of the teacher, though he is permitted to exercise his own best judgment and his responses no longer are motivated by fear of a teacher.

Adolescents need freedom, within limits. They have learned to appreciate some moral and ethical precepts and should be allowed to practice them. Freedom of action and of decision-making should be theirs unless they show through undesirable behavior that they are not yet ready to assume this responsibility. In such cases, it is the teacher's duty to help offenders improve their attitude and behavior so that they can be permitted once again to be on their own.

Teacher Influence on Pupil Behavior Maintaining control of the behavior of the pupils in a class is a first step toward the development of self-control among its members. To ensure favor-

able learning conditions for his pupils, the teacher must earn and maintain respect for his leadership. To do so he may need to instill fear of consequences for disrupting class activities among the extreme nonconformists. When such individualistic young people gain a better understanding of their classroom responsibilities and mend their ways, there will be no further reason for the teacher to apply fear-producing techniques.

Although a few energy-filled young people may be uncooperative, especially at the beginning of the school term or year, certain difficulties can be avoided or reduced if the teacher follows a few simple suggestions.

1. Expect pupils to obey rules and regulations The attitude of the teacher in maintaining proper order and in achieving good discipline is more important than many believe. The teacher who *expects* self-controlled behavior in the classroom is likely to get it. If the teacher is ready to go to work as soon as the pupils enter his room, they usually are ready to fall in line. A teacher who is indifferent to his pupils and careless about his work encourages disorder. This teacher is likely to place the blame for pupil attitudes and behavior on the young people themselves rather than upon either his lack of planning or his indifference.

It is good group procedure and excellent classroom administration to use a minimum number of rules. Moreover, rules should grow out of the group situation and should not be imposed except as they are necessary for the welfare of the group. When rules evolve from the group, the members usually accept them without much resentment.

2. Speak clearly and distinctly The teacher who makes certain that his voice carries to all parts of the room, who speaks clearly and distinctly, and who exhibits an attitude of confidence in himself commands the respect of his pupils. A faltering voice or a timid approach encourages misbehavior.

3. Be prepared to stimulate thinking Adolescents want to be active. The teacher must give them something to do or they

will make their own activities. Pupils enjoy the kind of activity that leads to successful achievement. The master teacher prepares his material so well that he is ready to start work promptly and to keep it going until the end of the period.

4. Delegate class routine to members of class Each teacher has his own way of handling the many daily tasks of class management. When he discovers a satisfactory and time-saving procedure, he should follow it. He can train pupils to take responsibility by delegating routine jobs to certain members of the class. Picking up paper from the floor should be the concern of every pupil; taking the attendance can be the job of a pupil under the supervision of the teacher. Responsibility for cleaning the chalkboard can be rotated among the pupils according to a daily or weekly schedule. Passing out books and papers and collecting written homework should follow a definite procedure, thereby avoiding the confusion that results from doing it one way one time and a different way another.

5. Practice emotional control There are occasions in every classroom when the teacher should express disapproval of undesirable behavior. He may find it difficult, if not impossible, to disapprove with a smile and make the disapproval effective. But even though he is angered by misbehavior, he gains greater co-operation from the class if he can control his temper. If he pours out a blast of disapproval at his pupils, they resent him or inwardly laugh at him. Pupils have respect for a teacher who, in trying situations, shows self-control. They object less to the fact that he disapproves than to the fact that he lacks emotional stability. The teacher's attitude should be objective and his disapproval should be directed toward the offense, not toward the offender. The kind of disapproval that usually is most effective with adolescents is given silently—a disapproving look, for example.

The self-disciplined teacher maintains emotional control in any situation, no matter how trying. He does not show fear of his superiors or become upset during an emergency. His method of meeting accidents, illness, or fires serves as a calming influence on those with whom he works.

6. *Locate the guilty person* If a disturbance occurs, the alert teacher is able to locate it and the individual or individuals involved. Every member of the class should be deterred from engaging in unco-operative behavior by his knowledge that the teacher is aware of young people's pranks. A resourceful teacher finds ways to keep all members of the class busy, giving special attention to potential trouble makers, since he knows that busy people seldom get into trouble. If a teacher has an active young person in his class who fails to respond to his influence, he should enlist the assistance of one of the school administrators or a guidance counselor.

7. *Know the pupils* Adolescents do not like to be addressed as "you," or "the boy in the third seat." The teacher who can call pupils by name usually finds that there will be less tendency to misbehave in his class. In small schools, there is no problem; in larger schools, a teacher who has classes of thirty-five to forty-five pupils is faced with a real challenge when he attempts, term after term, to learn the names of all his pupils.

8. *Treat the students as individuals* Pupils of this age are truly individualistic and need to be treated as persons. They have outgrown accepting orders simply because these are given by someone in authority; they want to know the reasons for a request. They are prone to torment teachers and members of their group. The teacher who can recognize the presence and strength of these urges earns the sincere admiration of his pupils. Although they want their freedom, they want even more to be under the guidance of an understanding teacher.

CAUSES OF DEVIANT BEHAVIOR

An adolescent's display of emotional disturbance or delinquent behavior can have its roots in any number of factors.

Physical Causes Restlessness and sullenness often are physiological in origin. If adolescents are in good health and able to hear and see well enough to participate adequately in class discussions, restlessness and irritability usually are reduced to a

minimum. School people recognize this fact. More and more schools administer periodic health check-ups, including eye examinations, tests of auditory acuity, and chest X-rays.

A young person may be affected by a glandular imbalance that causes him to become irritable or nervous, sluggish or phlegmatic. Behavior habits usually are improved by a correction of the glandular difficulty. Glandular treatment should be undertaken, naturally, only by a competent physician.

The health of a teacher is a factor which affects pupil-teacher relationships. The ailing teacher rarely receives sympathy from adolescent learners. They want and deserve healthy and energetic teachers who can give dynamic leadership. Many adolescents tend to ridicule, play pranks on, or become impatient with teachers who are maimed or in poor health. Secondary-school pupils sometimes imitate the coughing or sneezing of a teacher who has a cold. A temporary loss of voice is seized upon as a splendid opportunity to get into mischief, since the teacher is unable to reprimand the offenders.

Personal Qualities Personal interests and the possession of certain personality traits motivate the behavior of adolescent boys and girls. The following represent a few of these behavior motivators. The classroom situation provides many opportunities in which:

1. Extreme individualism or self-interest can dominate a young person's behavior.
2. Unawareness or non-understanding of consequences can lead him to engage in undesirable activities.
3. Immature development may cause him to be overaware of himself. Bashfulness or self-consciousness may be interpreted by the teacher as stubbornness or lack of cooperation.
4. A strong desire to imitate the behavior of older adolescents or adults may stimulate him to do as they do, regardless of the fact that the behavior imitated may be socially unacceptable. The teacher, by example even more than by precept, can stimulate adolescents to want to imitate self-disciplined adult behavior rather than behavior that is uncontrolled.

Social Causes Adolescent behavior may be influenced by the following:

Need to attract attention An adolescent's desire to make himself known to the important members of his group may be strong enough to cause him to do things he would not ordinarily do. The understanding teacher may allow such adolescent behavior to continue within limits so that the individual receives training in social living. When attention-getting activities are not curbed in any way, however, the seeds of self-centered activity may be sown, causing the individual to become antisocial in his adult living.

Desire to be accepted by an important group Belonging to an outstanding group is a coveted honor. An adolescent may believe that becoming a member will make it easier for him to hold the attention, respect, and admiration of the group itself; he will be envied by non-members. The initiation ceremonies may be severe, yet the neophyte is willing to endure almost all that he is called upon to undergo in order to be allowed to associate on equal terms with the members of what to him seems to be a select group.

Urge for unsupervised activity Adolescents are constantly struggling to throw off the supervision imposed on them by parents and teachers. They believe that unrestricted freedom of action will give them great satisfaction. Unfortunately, however, as soon as an adult turns over to them the responsibility for a situation, they seem not to know what to do with the time on their hands. For example, they want parental help in the planning of their parties and teacher help in the planning of school club activities or social events.

The Teaching-learning Situation The factors that affect the classroom behavior of young people include the attitude of the teacher, the location of the room and its temperature, and the number and size of seats. It is necessary that attention be given to matters such as light, ventilation, and cleanliness as well as arrangement of furniture and wall decorations.

An adolescent behaves one way in one classroom situation and in an entirely different manner in another. What makes the difference? Often it is one important factor—the teacher, although many other conditions may cause undesirable pupil attitudes. Amount or kind of pupil activity in relation to that of the teacher is an important factor of adjustment. Pupils should be active participants; the teacher should lead discussions without monopolizing them. The topic under consideration, the length of time during which any one pupil has the floor, and the behavior expected of the listeners are factors that affect the behavior of learners. An enthusiastic teacher so stimulates learners to co-operate in a project he has chosen that they act as though they originated the activity themselves.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

Some cases of adolescent maladjustment can become extremely serious before their symptoms are recognized, and then therapy treatment is needed. For the most part, however, emotional disturbance or delinquent behavior can be lessened by intelligently administered preventive techniques.

Value of Motivation Good teaching is the greatest deterrent to misbehavior. The teacher who, when he meets a class, promptly begins a discussion soon has the class so interested that the pupils do not misbehave. This type of teacher plans his lessons to fit the experience level of the learners. He then proceeds to stimulate pupil interest in class discussions. He avoids the spectacular, but uses ingenious techniques to challenge thinking and to bring each learner into the discussion.

Goals to Be Reached The secondary-school population includes a wide range of individual differences: from the low IQ to the high IQ; from pupils with little interest in school work to those whose entire life centers in the activities of the school; from sickly pupils to healthy pupils; and from the physically handicapped to athletes. The group that faces a teacher daily challenges him to assign home study and to organize class work in such a way that each young person can benefit to the limit of his capac-

ity from his study activities. Thus these become preventive measures.

Best results are obtained when teachers work as a team, keeping in mind that most pupils are expected to meet the study demands of four or more teachers. A co-operative teacher watches the length of his home assignments so that pupils do not have to devote too much time to home study of his subject. The most reliable way to estimate the probable length of a home assignment is for the teacher himself to work it out in detail and then to multiply the time he spent on it by three. The total should not be more than forty-five minutes.

A pupil can be expected to devote the full amount of required time to homework problems, but no more than that. Study assignments should challenge but not be so difficult as to discourage the learner or cause him to borrow the answers from his neighbor. Pupils usually come to class prepared when assignments are fitted to their time and ability limitations.

Importance of Teacher Self-confidence Pupils know if a teacher lacks confidence in himself or in his methods, and they are ready to take advantage of his weakness. The teacher who emanates confidence creates in his pupils the desire to do what is expected of them. The dynamic and forceful teacher stimulates positive and wholesome pupil attitudes.

Knowledge of Subject A teacher is not required to be fully informed about the many aspects of the various fields of knowledge, but young people expect him to know his own subject. They are quick to make much of the fact that he is weak in subject matter, although they will excuse his making an occasional error. Anyone can make a mistake, but a teacher should not make them too frequently. Moreover, he should be willing to correct any errors that he has made and to admit lack of knowledge if he is unable to answer a pupil's question. In such instances, the teacher and the class try to find the answer to the question or problem together.

Impartiality A teacher may arouse resentment by showing favoritism toward a few members of the class. Each pupil is en-

titled to the same consideration given any other pupil. This does not mean that pupils should not be treated as individuals and that individual differences should not be considered. An understanding teacher evaluates fairly the attitudes and behavior of his pupils and treats each pupil according to his individual needs and his ability to accept responsibilities. If an innocent pupil has been falsely accused of misbehavior, the teacher will gain stature if he publicly admits that fact as soon as he becomes aware of it. At all times he must realize that pupils have the right to expect fair treatment.

Participation in the Activities of the School A young person who feels that he is an active and important member of his group usually wants to see that group succeed. For this reason, pupils should be encouraged to develop their own code of behavior. This code probably will have more value for the group that develops it than for later groups to whom it is submitted for use. From time to time, therefore, the code should be revised.

Pupil-constructed codes of behavior differ from school to school in the number of items included, format, and wording. Usually, however, the ideal of good school citizenship is stressed. Pupils pledge themselves to be honest, obey school rules and regulations, meet study obligations, and co-operate to the best of their ability with faculty members and classmates. In those schools which operate a pupil court, pupils who fail to abide by any of the provisions of the code may be called before a committee of their peers, at least for their first offense.

Parent-Teacher Co-operation Parent-teacher organizations deal with the adjustment problems of pupils and parents. Although some adolescents do not want their parents to discuss them with teachers, the guidance needs of youth cannot be met successfully without co-operation between parents and teachers. If a definite discipline problem arises, the co-operation of the parents may be extremely helpful. Adolescent attitudes and behavior are not developed in a vacuum, but arise either in the home or in the school or, sometimes, partly in both places. The solution of a problem, therefore, must be worked out in the home as well as in the school.

IMPROVING PUPIL BEHAVIOR

Beginning teachers often ask for simple formulas to use in dealing with disciplinary problems. The answer is never a simple one, nor is it the same for two teachers or two classes. A situation may arise in one class because of the teacher; but not in another. A technique for meeting a difficult situation may be used effectively by one teacher; but may be unsatisfactory for another.

Common Means of Improving Behavior Among the means of improving behavior which a teacher has at his disposal are changing the pupil's seat, depriving offenders of privileges, issuing demerits, accepting apologies, requiring detention, using praise, ignoring the offender but not the offense, participating in personal conferences with the guilty person or persons, and reporting misbehavior to the proper authorities. These should be (1) understood by the pupils, (2) administered objectively, (3) based on the offense, (4) appropriate to the offender, (5) acceptable, (6) effective, (7) administered to the guilty, not the innocent, and (8) directed at the individual, not the group.

The teacher can make use of either indirect or direct control. Control is indirect if the pupil is unaware of its administration, yet is conscious of its influence. Indirect control is usually the better approach; yet there are times when direct control is necessary. A technique used effectively with one pupil in one situation may fail to achieve its purpose with another pupil or in another situation. Hence the ingenious teacher varies his methods of dealing with undesirable overt behavior.

Changing seat Friends like to sit next to one another. If they seem to have too much to talk about, it is usually wise to separate them, but they must know why their seats have been changed. Pupils may whisper or fail to give attention to the class work because they cannot see or cannot hear what is happening. The teacher should be aware of such pupils and give them seats that will enable them to see the chalkboard and hear the teacher.

Demerits The principal weakness of a demerit system is that the penalty is not always associated with the offense. Its main

value lies in building success attitudes—pupils come to want prestige. If the pupil accumulates a large number of demerits, however, he realizes that no amount of good behavior can remedy the damage done. He then is likely to begin a contest with himself to discover how many demerits he can secure, defeating the teacher with his own weapon. Any worthwhile demerit system includes in its operation enough flexibility to permit the teacher to withdraw a privilege rather than assign a demerit. This change in technique allows for individual treatment and makes possible the application of the system in an effective manner.

Apology An adolescent should be led to develop respect for his fellows and to want to behave in such a manner as to earn their respect. If his actions are sufficiently annoying to interfere with the rights of the group he can be motivated to want to apologize. He then should translate the expressed attitude into behavior approved by the group. The verbal expression of apology is only the beginning; it must be followed immediately by a change in behavior.

Apology has value as an improving technique *only* when it is used wisely by the teacher. The teacher cannot hope to secure a change in behavior through forced apologies. The teacher who demands an apology may achieve the verbal expression but he may also invite a whispered insult. If a pupil does not regret his behavior, any apology will be empty words that had better not be uttered.

Deprivation of privileges A pupil who takes advantage of a school privilege can be deprived of an experience in which he wants very much to engage. For example, the pupil who plagiarizes in an essay or poetry contest should be made to understand the dishonesty of his deed. He should also be denied the privilege of submitting another contribution.

Various forms of deprivations are valuable. Care must be exercised, however, not to deprive the pupil of anything necessary to his health. In spite of a misdeed, he should be allowed to participate in health-giving exercise under close supervision. The wise teacher does not impose a penalty which tempts the adolescent to engage in other and perhaps more serious misbehavior.

Detention Training in punctuality is essential. Pupils who come to class late not only hurt themselves but interfere with the work and plans of others. Hence they need to develop an appreciation of the value of time. This can be done by having them make up the time lost. The use of detention as a penalty is best limited to cases of tardiness. When pupils are detained after school hours they should be given definite work to do or activities in which to engage. The purpose of detention is to enable pupils to gain the learning experiences lost by their lateness. Keeping adolescents after school to sit idly in a detention room has no constructive value.

It is unquestionably a waste of time and energy to ask a pupil to write correctly "one hundred times" a word or expression in which he has made a spelling or construction error. When this form of penalty is applied, the pupil usually performs the task automatically, and little or no learning results. The story is told of the pupil who, after writing "I have gone home" one hundred times, appended a note to the teacher that read, "I have finished and now I have went home." One cannot teach ideas by imposing penalties. Extra work of this kind given as a penalty has no value.

Ignoring The teacher cannot ignore unco-operative behavior; yet he can avoid making his disapproval personal by focussing on the misbehavior. A teacher should be able to make a distinction between ignoring an individual's behavior and ignoring the individual who is misbehaving. The teacher should condemn the offense but not the offender. The pupil must be made aware of the fact that his behavior is unsatisfactory. The teacher can do this by looking at him steadily or by excluding him from the class discussion until the undesirable behavior is discontinued. If the misbehaving pupil has had certain privileges in class, these privileges can be given to another pupil. The proper use of this technique may lead the pupil to regret his misbehavior and to become again a class member in good standing.

Personal conference The conference between pupil and teacher is very effective, since it enables the teacher and the pupil to know and understand each other better. When the pupil who

seems to be out of step with his classmates gets a new point of view, he usually decides to conform. Occasionally, without meaning to do so, a teacher may hurt a pupil's feelings or seem to treat him unfairly. In the conference, teacher and pupil are afforded an opportunity to think through the situation. The personal problems of adolescents are important to them. Through personal conferences a tactful and understanding teacher can gain insight into the difficulties and give needed assistance, especially if the adolescents have confidence in him.

Praise The desire and the need for approval are very strong among adolescent learners. Work well done should be rewarded. One of the best ways to give recognition to desirable behavior or to significant achievement is through the cheapest commodity in the world—praise. The teacher should invite correct behavior and should, if necessary, insist on it. He then should be ready to give praise for desirable changes in the pupil's behavior. The use of this technique will convince the pupil that the teacher is more interested in improved behavior than in criticism of him as an individual.

Reporting offenses In large secondary schools, the principal's duties are many and complex; hence the authority to deal with disciplinary problems usually is delegated to an assistant who holds the position of dean, vice-principal, or guidance chairman. Nevertheless, the principal should make it clear that he will not excuse infringement of necessary school rules. This administrative attitude soon permeates the entire school. The *esprit de corps* in any school is determined by the influence and the leadership ability of the school head.

Although the administration is responsible for school behavior, it does not follow that the teacher should send to the principal every pupil who is unco-operative in the classroom. The teacher should be resourceful enough to try different approaches until he finds one that will reach the pupil and solve the problem. A pupil should not be reported to a school administrator or counselor except as a last resort. To attempt to punish an adolescent by "sending him to the office" not only results in pupil resentment but also causes pupils to consider the teacher a

weakling who cannot manage without help from his superiors.

An inexperienced teacher, on the other hand, may hesitate to send a pupil to the office for fear that others may consider him unable to meet ordinary classroom problems. If the pupil actually needs special help it will be to the credit of the teacher to work co-operatively with administrators and counselors on the pupil's problem. There are instances in which the teacher is called upon to deal with a pupil who deviates widely from the accepted norm of behavior. In such cases the teacher has the right to expect assistance from others. Before the pupil is referred to a school official, however, the teacher should discuss the pupil with the official. The teacher also should tell the pupil the reason for the referral. The teacher thus shows that he is not shifting responsibility but rather is attempting to give the young person expert help.

Mental-Hygiene Approach The teacher's attitude toward youthful misdemeanors should be objective at all times. The teacher may need to disapprove but he should avoid emotionalism. Adolescents are neither sufficiently mature nor experienced enough to recognize the full import of some of their behavior. They sometimes need firm treatment by the teacher. At the same time they should be guided toward a better understanding of what constitutes socially acceptable attitudes and conduct. Allowing young persons always to satisfy their immediate interests and urges is likely to be harmful to their best development.

An important function of the teacher is to prevent emotional maladjustment and to preserve mental health. The teacher can prevent maladjustment in several ways: (1) demonstrate that he himself is emotionally stable, (2) make certain that there are no maladjustive influences in the teaching-learning situation, (3) watch out for signs of emotional difficulties among his pupils. The teacher can help preserve the mental health of his pupils if he (1) is sincere and objective in his disapproval of a pupil's lack of co-operation, (2) acquaints the pupil with the reasons for needed disapproval, and (3) affords opportunities for the pupil to exercise control of his own behavior.

SERIOUS ADOLESCENT MALADJUSTMENTS

Contrary to opinions expressed by some lay people, stimulated mainly by newspaper and other reports of youthful delinquencies and difficulties, most adolescents are law-abiding citizens and interested pupils. There are, however, some boys and girls who cannot meet the challenge of growing up. They become emotionally disturbed; they engage in socially disapproved activities; they are unhappy, insecure, or even mentally ill. These young people need special care. Teachers and school counselors, prepared to recognize symptoms of maladjustment, co-operate with reputable social agencies to provide for these victims of destructive influences the aid that is so much needed.

The problem of mental illness is one of the greatest that America faces today. According to present estimates about 6 per cent of the population will develop a mental disorder in some degree during their lifetime. Many of those affected are of secondary-school age. We need to know and to face frankly those conditions that encourage emotional maladjustment. We should then do all that we can to prevent emotional disorders that may interfere seriously with efficient work or result in mental breakdown. Teachers should be acquainted with the symptoms of those types of mental illness that are likely to have their beginnings before the end of the adolescent years.

Some individuals are born with potentialities that predispose toward mental and emotional imbalance. If an individual fails to make a satisfactory adjustment to an emotion-disturbing situation, this failure may become the basis of subsequent failures. Thus the environmental factors intensify an already bad situation. Conflict in the home, in the school, or in some other situation makes it difficult for a young person to free himself completely from unwholesome emotional attitudes and behavior. These may become strong enough to cause mental breakdown or mental illness.

There are definite symptoms of mental and emotional disorders. There are physical symptoms, behavior symptoms, mental symptoms, and emotional symptoms. All teachers of adolescents should be trained to know and recognize the more impor-

tant symptoms and to confer with or refer the case to a guidance counselor, a psychologist, or a psychiatrist. The degree of success in alleviating mental and emotional disorders depends on (1) the nature of the predisposing and exciting factors, (2) the progress of the maladjustment, (3) the curative measures employed, (4) the extent of the co-operation of the individual with the psychiatrist, and (5) the environmental factors which confront the affected individual during the administration of therapy and after.

Attitude toward Behavior Deviation Most secondary-school teachers have met or will meet in their classes one or more pupils whose behavior deviates widely from that of the other members of the group. The teacher should be able to differentiate between the pupils who are deliberately unco-operative and those who are mentally ill. A sound understanding of psychology and mental hygiene will help him evaluate pupil behavior and recognize deviates.

Complete information should be gathered concerning the mentally ill or delinquent young person's physical condition, his mental ability, his emotional and social status, his interests, his personal habits, the environmental conditions in which he lives, and his family history. (See Case History, Chapter 19). Then therapeutic treatment should be administered by specialists, in co-operation with the home and the school.

It has been found that the causes of youthful delinquency often are conditions in the offender's home, school, or neighborhood environment. Hence in some school systems, sympathetic and trained teachers or counselors are assigned as liaison officers between the schools and the courts. School-court liaison officers can help school people, parents, and judges become aware of unfavorable conditions and remedy them insofar as is possible.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Explain how authority becomes invested in a teacher.
2. Enumerate ways in which the teacher may make wise use of his authority.
3. What are some common abuses by teachers of the authority they have?

4. What benefits may be expected when authority is delegated by a teacher to his pupils?
5. Why is group responsibility more effective in the control of adolescents than orders from the teacher?
6. Show how the teacher can use the conference procedure in dealing with behavior problems.
7. Discuss the correction of behavior through the use of demerits.
8. What are some desirable rewards for good work?
9. To what extent can an attitude-development program be of value in developing desirable behavior habits? Suggest a program that might be useful in the secondary school.
10. Give your idea of what constitutes a good code of behavior for secondary-school pupils. Should the code be different for junior- and senior-high-school students?
11. Describe the role of the teacher in the formation of behavior habits.
12. What personality traits of a teacher are especially valuable in the development of self-discipline in the members of the class?
13. Under what conditions may a teacher be justified in sending a pupil to the principal?
14. Recall a problem situation that occurred during your secondary-school years. How did the teacher handle it? Would you have handled it differently and, if so, how?
15. What are the problems involved in transferring a pupil from one teacher to another? from one school to another?
16. What measuring instruments, if any, can be used to determine a teacher's ability to discipline his class?
17. What are the dangers of too much teacher domination or too much freedom in the classroom?
18. Describe a difficult discipline problem and give suggestions for its solution.
19. What is meant by the mental-hygiene approach to the development of self-discipline?
20. Recall, if you can, any cases of serious emotional disturbance or delinquency among your classmates in secondary school. As far as you know, what was done for these young people?

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Evaluation in Secondary Education

Early in this century the avowed function of schooling was the inculcation of knowledge and the perfecting of skills. Hence measurement of pupil progress was limited almost entirely to the administration of testing programs to determine the extent to which the learner had mastered subject-matter content or had developed a skill. Subject-matter tests, for the most part, placed major emphasis on rote memorization.

Since present-day education is aimed at helping the individual develop physically, emotionally, and socially as well as mentally, traditional techniques of measurement have limited value as means of determining the extent to which a learner has profited from education. There has been much experimentation with newer techniques of learner evaluation; in general, however, the results have been relatively unsatisfactory. Much more study and experimentation will be needed before we achieve evaluating techniques that can be regarded as completely valid and reliable. In this chapter we present a brief account of the present status of pupil evaluation, with suggestions concerning the use of some of the more commonly used methods.

NATURE AND FUNCTION OF PUPIL EVALUATION

The terms *measurement* and *evaluation* are sprinkled liberally throughout books on education. In some instances the terms appear to be used interchangeably. Such usage is incorrect. There are distinctions between these terms that need to be understood.

Measurement is used in education to assign numbers or scores to categories into which individuals are being classified. It is one means of determining a pupil's progress. When learning in any

area is assessed, the results are expressed in meaningful categories.

Evaluation is a broader term than measurement. Evaluation not only is concerned with the determination of learning results but it also involves value judgments of the desirability of those results. It is a continuous process in which various techniques of testing or measurement can be utilized. Evaluation is a co-operative activity in which the principal, the teacher, the pupils, and the parents participate.

Function of Evaluation Teachers and other members of the school personnel are constantly estimating the extent of changes in a young person's life pattern—the knowledge he is acquiring, the skill he is perfecting, and the attitudes he is developing. The kind and amount of change discovered through the application of various techniques of evaluation are then interpreted according to the school's educational objectives. If the pupil has not made sufficient progress, it then becomes the responsibility of the school people to consider changes in the curriculum offerings, the teaching techniques, and the kind of learning stimulation which he has had.

Difficulty of Evaluation Complete or even adequate evaluation of pupil progress is difficult to achieve. Since evaluation is a consideration of the individual's entire personality, subjective factors enter the picture. When the pupil is assigned a rule of grammar, a list of events, a mathematical formula, lines of poetry, or a list of dates to memorize and repeat verbatim, it is a simple matter to evaluate the results. The pupil either reproduces exactly or he does not. However, when his power to interpret, his ability to apply, or his degree of co-operation or industry is to be appraised, it is more difficult to rate him. People differ in their standards, especially in the matter of interpretation and attitude. A teacher is constantly faced with the problem of deciding what he should expect from a pupil. Equally difficult for the teacher to determine is the extent to which the pupil is doing what is expected of him.

Since pupil evaluation is concerned with the total individual, valid and objective answers must be found for questions such as

these: *What is meant by an ideally honest person? When is a person stable emotionally? Who shall say how this or that historical event or literary contribution should be interpreted?*

Moreover, adult standards of accomplishment may be beyond the reach of the boy or girl. Setting unattainable goals for youthful learners was characteristic of the early days of educational measurement. For example, in penmanship, models set for elementary-school children were to be copied exactly. Children were rated by the degree to which they approached the perfection which the model represented. Thorndike, as a result of his studies of children's handwriting, finally set up standards of desirable progress in penmanship according to the degree of development of muscular control and co-ordination. School people then began to realize that standards of measurement must be relative rather than absolute.

The fact that the various aspects of an individual's life pattern develop at different rates affects each phase of his behavior. At a given age, for example, a young person may have developed mentally to the point that he exhibits superior intellectual capacity warranting his participation in advanced studies with other pupils of similar intellectual status, but he may be emotionally less mature than most of this mentally superior group. Consequently, he is unable to meet the challenge of competing with them in activities other than the purely intellectual and may miss the other benefits that he should have from association with a peer group.

Areas of Evaluation Because of the unevenness of physical growth during adolescence and the various health disorders attendant on this period of development, a complete physical and health examination should be administered to a pupil before he is permitted to engage in the relatively strenuous program of activities included in the physical education curriculum of the average school. The number of subjects he elects, the amount of traveling he must do from class to class, and the number of hours he is expected to devote to home assignments—all need to be determined in the light of his physical strength and health. Not only should appropriate physical and health examinations be administered when the pupil enters the secondary school, but peri-

odic check-ups are needed during his entire stay in the school.

It is customary in most secondary schools to attempt to discover an entering pupil's mental and educational level by intelligence tests and other measuring techniques, such as tests of reading comprehension and arithmetic ability, or more inclusive tests, such as the *Test for High School Entrants*.¹ On the basis of the results, entering pupils are assigned to courses and classes for which they seem to be fitted.

Personality factors of young adolescents also should be—and in some schools are—evaluated. In addition to his academic, vocational, and recreational interests, a young person's degree of emotional control, social and personal attitudes, study habits, and other traits also can be studied by available instruments of evaluation.

If secondary-school administrators and teachers hope to motivate worthy and effective educational growth, they need to know as much as they can about what a young person brings to his new school experiences. From that point onward, what he does with what he has is conditioned by (1) his own capacity and willingness to benefit from guidance and instruction, (2) the educational objectives which the school is attempting to achieve, and (3) the curricular offerings and the organization and techniques of instruction that are utilized. By means of evaluating techniques the young person and his teachers determine the extent to which he is benefiting from his school experiences and the possible reasons for apparent failure or mediocre performance.

TYPES OF EVALUATING PROCEDURES

Learner evaluation includes a consideration of many factors. Some of these can be discovered objectively and with relatively little difficulty. Others almost defy detection because of their subtle influence on overt behavior. There are subjective as well as objective elements in evaluation. In order to carry out pupil appraisal effectively, the teacher must utilize every available procedure. He will need to discover what technique is best for measuring a particular trait or learning function. Great care should

¹ L. D. Crow and Alice Crow, *A Test for High School Entrants*, rev. ed., Acorn Publishing Company, Rockville Centre, New York, 1959.

be exercised to observe and to record any evidence of progress or lack of it in the development of attitudes, skills, and knowledge.

Informal evaluating techniques are used constantly by the teacher in his daily contacts with his pupils; more formal means are used for definite purposes and at specified times. Among the techniques of evaluation can be included the following:

A. Informal techniques

1. Observation and anecdotal reports
2. Daily oral recitations and quizzes
3. Themes, reports, and notebooks
4. Individual and group projects
5. Teacher-made tests and examinations
6. School-constructed personality rating sheets, interest blanks, etc.

B. Formal techniques

1. Standardized tests, scales, and inventories, including intelligence tests, general and specific aptitude tests
Scholastic achievement tests
Personality tests and scales and interest inventories
Projective techniques
2. Case histories
3. Interviews

The utilization with all pupils of all these techniques, especially the formal techniques, probably is not practicable from the point of view of time, personnel, and budgetary allowance.

Observation and Anecdotal Reports Observation of a person's behavior perhaps is the oldest and most commonly used evaluation procedure. All of us in our daily association with our fellows employ this technique. Unfortunately, we do not always see or hear what we think we do, or we misinterpret what we observe. Our judgment may be influenced by personal bias or insufficient understanding. Careless observation may lead us to err in our judgment concerning the cause of or the possible effect on the individual or the group of one or another form of behavior. Secondary-school teachers are no exception. Unless they exercise care, they too can be poor observers. Teacher education should—and in most teacher-training institutions does—give teacher-trainees experience in learning how to observe young people's

behavior accurately and interpret it objectively and correctly.

As the trained teacher works with his class from day to day, he gains an understanding of his pupils through his observation of their many behavior characteristics. These observable traits or habitual behavior patterns include, to mention but a few of many, manner of walking, quality of voice, grooming, expressed attitudes toward teachers and fellow students, degree of demonstrated interest or participation in class activities, and appearance of written work. In addition, specific incidents that occur in the classroom, study hall, library, school cafeteria, or on the school grounds may indicate certain traits that are worthy of attention.

Teachers are encouraged to keep brief anecdotal reports of significant pupil behavior. These reports are submitted to the dean or the chairman of guidance and are kept by him in his confidential files for future reference.

The use that can be made of anecdotal reports is illustrated in the following cases.

A history teacher realized that the work of one of his conscientious and successful students was not up to her usual high standard. After observing the student in class, the teacher submitted the following report:

M. L.'s work in history is falling off. I have observed her during study and discussion periods and have noticed that she seems to have difficulty in concentrating on what she is reading. I spoke to her about it and she says that she does not know what the trouble is but she just does not seem able to force herself to read and cannot understand what she does try to read. What can we do?

Upon receiving this anecdotal report, the dean sent for the girl. After observing her actions and by means of questions concerning her health, he guessed that she might be suffering from a pituitary-gland disorder. M. L. was referred to an endocrine-gland clinic and placed under treatment, with the result that she regained her accustomed ability to study and was able to make a creditable high-school record.

A Latin teacher observed that a girl in a first-term class constantly kept one of her fingers in her mouth. The teacher reported the situation as follows:

S. R. always has something in her mouth. At first, it was her finger. After I spoke to her privately about this, she stopped putting her

finger into her mouth but now is doing the same thing with a pencil, her locket, or anything else that is handy. She is a pleasant, quiet girl, but seems to be very shy. I don't think that she should be taking Latin.

The dean investigated S. R.'s situation and discovered that the girl was very unhappy in high school. She begged to be sent back to elementary school. Her behavior characteristics led to the conclusion that the girl was showing symptoms of regression. She was sent to a hospital for observation and psychiatric treatment.

Another illustration of the value of teacher observation and report is the case of a boy in a high-school English class. The teacher noticed that during class discussions he constantly seemed to be doodling and that he often embellished his written themes with drawings. The following report with several samples of his drawings was submitted to the chairman of guidance.

This boy seems to want to draw. His schoolwork is not too bad. Whenever I comment on his sketches he becomes very much embarrassed and even resentful of my referring to them. Should I let him continue his doodling or shall I try to stop it?

During an interview with the boy, the chairman discovered that he was passionately fond of drawing but that whenever he attempted any of it at home, his father reprimanded him for wasting time on "such nonsense." The head of the art department reported that some of the boy's drawings showed considerable talent. The father finally was convinced that the boy was not wasting time on his art. To the boy's great delight, he was allowed to major in art. He achieved considerable success and as a result elected commercial art as his vocational field.

Situations such as these are common. Sometimes an apparently insignificant detail of behavior or attitude may be extremely important. One of a teacher's greatest responsibilities is to observe, interpret, and report to the proper person significant things a pupil does or says.

Daily Oral Recitations and Quizzes The oral recitation often is a daily class routine. The teacher assigns a certain number of pages for home study and the next day devotes all or most of the class period to questions and answers based almost completely on textbook material, setting down a mark in his record book for each pupil who is called on to recite. This procedure

usually is supplemented by short daily quizzes and weekly tests on the material that has been read at home and reproduced (perhaps almost verbatim) in school.

Most school people regard the class period as an opportunity to develop ideas and to apply principles. They feel that whatever studying is done at home should serve as *background* for class activity. There are some school people, however, who feel that there may be some merit in the older method, since the many marks accumulated by a pupil during the term yield a fairer average rating at the end of the term than a final mark based on only a few pieces of work. Moreover, some school people believe that oral recitations enable the teacher to evaluate pupil mastery and understanding of assigned study material.

The disadvantages of the oral-recitation quiz as a measuring instrument would seem to outnumber its advantages by far. Questions vary in difficulty; only one pupil is active at a time; the shy, slow-thinking young person is at a disadvantage in comparison with the more aggressive boy or girl; the slower pupil may attempt to guess which question he will be asked rather than pay attention to what is being said by the pupil who is reciting; little or no discussion of a particular point in the lesson is possible; and few if any questions are asked by pupils for the purpose of clarification. Any interruption in the orderly sequence of the lesson may result in the teacher's failure to discover by the end of the period whether every pupil has done his homework.

It is, of course, important for the teacher to learn how conscientious the pupils are in their home study. Doing so without boring the student requires great ingenuity. Pupil interest and participation can be motivated either through class discussions for which the teacher has prepared significant pivotal questions or through the application of material studied at home to the solution in class of practical and intriguing problems.

Class discussions are pointless unless the pupils have mastered the material on which the discussions are based. One method of determining the pupils' knowledge is to give a five-minute quiz. The teacher or a rotating committee of pupils formulates five short-form questions or one brief essay question

(a different one for each row) and administers the quiz as soon as the class assembles. The papers are corrected immediately. Sometimes the pupils mark their own papers; at other times, they exchange papers. Occasionally the teacher collects the papers and corrects them. In any event, the correct answers are given in class. From this point on, the period is taken up with guided discussion. Whether a record is made of the marks earned on these quizzes is a matter for the class and the teacher to decide. If the policy followed is for rotating pupil committees to formulate and administer the question, the committee can correct the papers and enter the marks in a record book.

Themes, Reports, and Notebooks All written work submitted to a teacher as part of regular class work *must be evaluated* and the results of the evaluation made known to the learners. This is a pupil's right and a teacher's responsibility. There are few school experiences more disheartening to a young person than spending time and energy on a class report, submitting it, and then hearing no more about it.

If pupils know that the teacher will read carefully what they write, they usually respond by presenting well-prepared work. The overambitious pupil, however, may be so eager to earn a superior mark on his theme or report that he is moved to seek help in the preparation of the paper. Teachers often have doubts concerning the authenticity of a piece of work prepared outside the class, especially if it is superior to what has been done during class periods. Yet the teacher often hesitates to question the pupil, since he knows there are people who cannot work well under pressure but who do good work if they are free from distraction and can devote more time to the task.

It is good experience for a pupil to select a topic, gather material, and organize it. Both he and the class benefit when he presents the results of this work in a report that is carefully written or typed, grammatically correct, and true to fact or indicative of good judgment or imagination. If the teacher reads the paper carefully, rates it fairly, and returns it to the writer with suitable comment, the pupil probably will feel that he is rewarded for his effort.

All original compositions or research should be shared with

the class. Pupils should not simply read their reports to the class, however. They may use a few notes in order to help them organize their thoughts, but they should present their material informally, giving the class an opportunity to ask questions or discuss points. This procedure takes class time, but if the topics suggested by the teacher are interesting and comprehensible to the pupils, the reports become an integral part of the learning process and therefore justify the time spent. This procedure has further value in that (1) it gives the teacher an opportunity to evaluate a pupil's ability to speak before a group; (2) it helps the teacher discover how well the pupil understands the subject matter of the report, and (3) it affords the pupil an opportunity to engage in a worthwhile and practical activity—that of sharing with others the results of his labors.

In some subject areas, preparing notebooks is helpful to the pupil and an aid to the teacher in evaluating the ability to organize and report subject content and to select and arrange attractive and pertinent illustrative material. In addition, a notebook will reveal the pupil's neatness and ingenuity.

As he evaluates a notebook, the teacher must keep in mind the purpose it is to serve. Most young people enjoy making notebooks, but they may give so much attention to form that they neglect content. Having elaborate cover designs and many pictures, some of them irrelevant, may detract from rather than add to the value of the contribution. The teacher who places too much emphasis on illustrative material may inadvertently motivate his pupils to cut out pictures from library books or from books or magazines in the home without parental permission. A notebook should be a *work* book. So regarded, this type of assignment is valuable both as a teaching device and a means of measuring workmanship.

Individual or Group Projects Original research engaged in by one student or, preferably, by a group of students is an excellent medium for developing pupil initiative, industry, and ability to organize material. The project must be within the pupil's ability to comprehend and perform. If it is a group project, the teacher must make certain that every member of the group has a share of responsibility for its successful achieve-

ment. Upon its completion, the project should be exhibited for the benefit of the class or of the whole school, so that the members of the group will feel that they have engaged in an activity for the good of others as well as themselves.

SCHOOL-CONSTRUCTED EVALUATING DEVICES

Learning achievement is demonstrated most effectively through application of learning content to life situations. The educated man is a person who applies to his everyday living the knowledge, attitudes and skills he has learned in school. In his daily contacts with his associates he is honest, industrious, cheerful, and co-operative. He is careful about his appearance and his health. He budgets his money wisely. He performs his citizenship duties intelligently. Finally, he is well adjusted emotionally in his home, social, and occupational relationships. In a practical way, he is constantly taking and passing tests of competence. Any other form of testing is somewhat artificial. If learning is to progress satisfactorily in the classroom, however, there must be periodic tests so that both the teacher and the learner can evaluate the extent and the quality of achievement.

Achievement Tests and Examinations In most secondary schools the examination is used to assign marks or grades and to decide which students should be promoted. These objectives are justifiable. So long as the educational system is organized on an annual or semiannual promotion basis, pupils must be judged ready or not to advance to the next class. Pupils and their parents seek teacher evaluation of school progress. The test or examination appears to be an accepted method of determining learning success. At the same time, the acceptance of tests and examinations as the *sine qua non* of evaluating learning success has given rise to much emotional disturbance among young people.

Written tests should serve other purposes than the mere assigning of grades. They should be regarded as devices for determining how successful both the teacher and the learner have been in any specific learning process. In order to realize this purpose several principles should be observed.

1. Tests and examinations should be based solely on material covered. There should be no trick questions aimed at confusing learners.
2. Test questions should be stated in language and form that the pupil can understand.
3. The questions should vary in difficulty, with some geared to the ability of the less able and a few difficult enough to challenge mentally superior learners. The first question should be relatively simple in order to instill confidence in the pupils.
4. The test or examination should not be so simple or so short that most of the pupils finish it long before the assigned time has elapsed; neither should it be so long or so difficult that few can complete it in the allotted time.
5. The questions should be presented clearly and definitely. If they are read to the class by the teacher, the reading should be clear, distinct, and well spaced. Questions on the chalkboard should be written so that everyone in the room can read them. Mimeographed copies of tests should be free of ink smudges; sufficient space should be allowed between each question.
6. Objective-test questions should be worded so that answers must be definite and can be evaluated objectively by the teacher.
7. Except perhaps for the final term-examination, all tests and examinations should be returned to the pupils and the results discussed with them so that they can discover their errors.
8. Pupil success on a test or examination should be evaluated by the teacher and the learner in relation to the performance of the group and to the learner's performance in previous tests.

A teacher should make certain that the material included in his test is pertinent. As he corrects the test papers, he should note the errors that are common to most of the learners and those that are made by only a few. The first procedure helps him evaluate his own teaching, since the test results serve as a *survey* of general class performance and mastery. The second procedure becomes a *diagnostic* technique whereby individual weaknesses are discovered.

After the teacher has rated and studied the test results, he and the learners should go over the papers. The points on which errors were made should become the basis for further class teaching and learning. Some pupils may be able to recognize and correct their errors when they are called to their attention. Whenever it is needed, pupils should receive extra instruction. If pupils can be encouraged to realize that the class tests do not represent the whim of a hard-hearted teacher but are administered to stimulate interest in learning, much of the fear of and resentment toward examinations can be eliminated. In schools and classes where tests are used constructively, the pupils welcome them.

To understand the relative aspect of test scores, let us assume that in a history test (Test A) administered to thirty-five pupils the scores range from a high of 95 to a low of 56. It can be discovered by inspection that the score of the middle or eighteenth student is 82. Pupil L earns a score of 84 on this test. Consequently, his rating is in the upper half of the class. In another history test (Test B) administered to the same pupils, the range of scores lies between 84 and 47. The midscore is 66. Pupil L's score is 79, which means that his *relative* achievement on Test B is much higher than it was on Test A, in spite of the fact that his actual score on Test B is 5 points lower than it was on Test A.

The reader who has studied educational statistics can carry this comparison of test scores a step further. He can determine the quartile distribution of the scores and then place the individual score in its proper quartile range. This simple statistical treatment of test results helps the teacher evaluate the relative difficulty of tests.

It is desirable for pupils to keep a record of their test results. Each should compare his own performance with the class average. Some teachers encourage their pupils to graph their test records, indicating the trend of the class medians as well as their own progress. A graph of one pupil's test results is given in Figure 11. This pupil's achievement at the beginning of the term was somewhat below that of half the class. As the term continued, his performance on test material became better than average and finally placed him among the more successful learners. This pupil's graph of progress indicates that probably he is co-opera-

tive and earnest in his study endeavors but needs a little time to find himself.

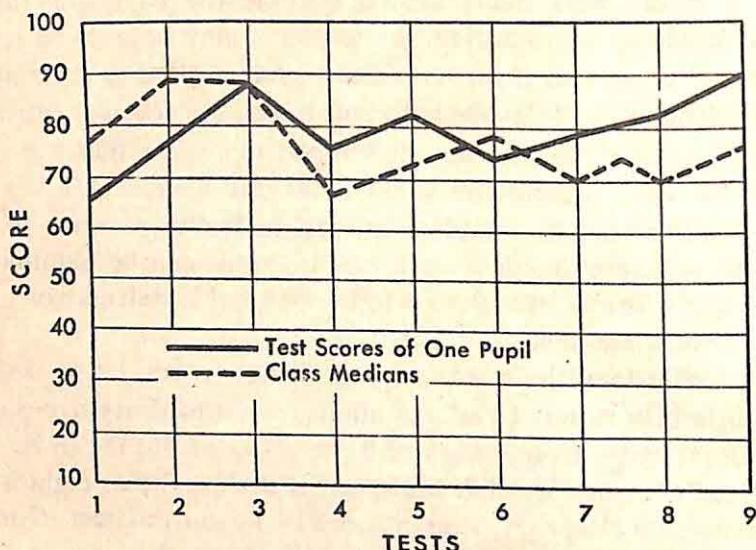


Figure 11. Comparison of Test Scores of One Pupil With Class Medians

Personality Rating Sheets, Interest Blanks Many teachers and administrators obtain information on the pupils' likes and dislikes, interests, home background, or personal problems. In some schools, teachers are encouraged to evaluate the personal qualities of their pupils apart from subject-matter achievement. For these evaluative purposes, blanks or inventories suited to the particular school situation usually are constructed by the faculty, sometimes assisted by student leaders. In many instances, the form of school-constructed blanks follows that of standardized evaluating techniques.

Many personality blanks used by teachers and other school personnel for the purpose of evaluating student characteristics are similar to the sample presented below. The essentials of the blank were prepared as a joint project by the principal, guidance staff, and student leaders of a high school in New York City.

During the first seven terms in the school in which this particular form of personality-rating blank is used, only those individuals are rated whose behavior in any of the phases of person-

Table 21. Personality Rating Scale

PERSONALITY TRAIT	EXCELLENT	ABOVE AVERAGE	AVERAGE	BELOW AVERAGE	POOR
A. Personal Attractiveness	Exceedingly attractive, well-groomed	Pleasing appearance	Acceptable appearance	Careless about appearance	Unkempt, not tidy
B. Emotional Control	Exceedingly well poised	Controls self with ease	Usually has emotional control	Emotional	Lacks emotional control
C. Social Adaptability	Always at ease in social situations	Usually at ease in social situations	At ease in social situations when interested	Ill at ease in social situations	Unable to adjust to social situations
D. Attitude Toward Others	Always agreeable, cooperative, and tactful	Usually agreeable and co-operative	Often agreeable and co-operative	Agreeable only when interested, uncooperative	Disagreeable, tactless, uncooperative
E. Mental Ability	Able to solve difficult problems	Usually able to solve difficult problems	Able to solve problems of average difficulty	Finds most problems difficult to solve	Not interested in mental activity
F. Initiative and Industry	Usually completes more than required tasks	Often completes more than required tasks	Carefully completes required tasks	Must be prodded to complete required tasks	Seldom completes required tasks
G. Trustworthiness	Can always be depended upon	Can be depended upon most of the time	Can be depended upon when interested	Can rarely be depended upon	Cannot be depended upon
H. Capacity for Leadership	Very able leader	Good leader	Good leader if interested in the group activity	Poor leader	Cannot take leadership responsibility
I. Service to Others	Extremely sensitive to opportunities to help others	Willing to help others at personal inconvenience	Willing to assist others in group activities	Will help others if not inconvenienced	Willing to help others only for personal benefit
J. Speech and Voice	Very pleasant voice, excellent diction	Pleasant voice, good diction	Acceptable voice, fair diction	Unpleasant voice, poor diction	Unpleasant voice, including definite speech defects
K. Health	Seldom ill	Ill occasionally	Ill several times yearly	Often ill	Chronically ill

(L. D. Crow and Alice Crow, *Learning to Live with Others*, D. C. Heath & Company, Boston, 1944, pp. 44-45.)

ality included in the scale seems to their teachers to be superior to or to fall below the average behavior of their classmates. The number of pupils rated usually ranges between 10 and 20 per cent of a class group. The personality evaluations are reported on cards containing on one side the printed items to be checked in appropriate columns and on the other side space for anecdotal records. These cards are filed cumulatively in the dean's office, where they are used in counseling. At the end of the last term in high school, every graduating senior is rated by at least five teachers. These ratings then are placed in a folder with the cumulative record and other pertinent data.

Recording Learner Progress Reference has been made to the cumulative-record card. It is customary in all secondary schools for the administration to keep a record of the pupil's academic progress, out-of-class activities, and so on.

The items on these cumulative-record forms differ among schools. Groundwork was done in this field by the American Council on Education. The cumulative-record form most widely used is the Educational Records Bureau's adaptation of the American Council Cumulative-Record Form. Most record forms include such items as these:

Identifying data

Pertinent information concerning family history and home background

Results of the administration of standardized tests and scales

Serious physical defects

Achievement record

Individual interests

Educational and vocational plans

Record of participation in extra-curricular activities

Special honors or awards

Personality evaluations made by teachers

Work experience

Miscellaneous data²

Many record forms provide a space for a small photograph of the pupil taken when he enters the school. At present, most

² For further discussion and samples of cumulative-record forms and other reports, consult A. E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance*, rev. ed., Harper & Brothers, New York, 1957.

school systems use different forms of cumulative records for the different school levels. In some schools, all the material concerning a pupil, including the cumulative record, is filed in a folder or envelope which goes with the pupil if he transfers from one school to another of the same level and is kept in a permanent file after the pupil has graduated or dropped out of school.

Records should be available for use by teachers and all other members of the staff who are concerned with pupil progress. Some teachers, however, are not always discreet in their use of information. Occasionally, tactless faculty members misuse information which they find on cumulative-record cards, sometimes to the great embarrassment of the pupils concerned. To provide against such misuse, certain data should be entrusted to the care of the guidance personnel. These facts are disclosed to other members of the faculty only if it seems wise. Even then all the facts need not be disclosed. It is easy to condemn a young person for life because of a behavior problem which was once serious but which he may have solved. For example, an adolescent may once take something that belongs to someone else or tell a lie. That does not make a thief or a liar of him for life. The incident may need to be reported so that attitude or behavior can be changed, but it then should become a closed issue unless the behavior continues. An adolescent's good reputation is a precious possession and should not be treated lightly by anyone—himself, his parents, or his teachers.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Differentiate among the terms *testing*, *measurement*, *appraisal*, and *evaluation*. Give examples of each.
2. Discuss the difficulties of evaluating pupil progress.
3. What phases of personality development should be evaluated to determine a pupil's readiness for admission to an honors class?
4. As a high-school pupil, what kinds of physical check-ups did you have? To what extent, if any, do you now believe that they were adequate?
5. From the point of view of measurement, what is an intangible? List as many of these intangibles as you can think of and suggest ways of evaluating each.

6. Try to recall the various techniques used in daily recitations by your teachers. Select one technique you liked and one you disliked. Describe each and give reasons for your attitude toward it.
7. Evaluate the practice of having pupils construct, administer, and score short class quizzes.
8. Discuss your present attitude toward your experiences as a secondary-school pupil in keeping notebooks.
9. As a student, do you prefer many or few classroom tests? Why?
10. If you have had experience in filling in school-made information blanks, describe your reactions to them. Do you believe pupils should be asked to participate in projects such as preparing the pupil-record form presented in this chapter? Give reasons for your answer.
11. Evaluate the personality-rating scale reprinted in this chapter. As an individual or group project, construct a personality-rating scale that you would like to use as a teacher.

(See end of Chapter 19 for Selected References.)

Measuring Instruments and Marking Systems

Test construction and test selection are important areas of teacher responsibility. Equally important are the marks or grades used to report learning progress.

TEACHER-MADE TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Before the twentieth century, most tests on all school levels were of the so-called *essay* type. Many of these essay questions began with the word *describe*, *discuss*, *tell*, or *explain*; for example:

Describe Scott's style of writing.

Tell all you can about the causes of the Industrial Revolution.

Discuss the effects upon Europe of Napoleon's rise to power.

Explain the formation of clouds.

A teacher's evaluation of the answers to such questions must be partly subjective. Thus, following the lead set by the constructors of intelligence tests early in the century, more and more testing agencies, schools, and teachers are employing the short-form, objective-type test and modified or objectified essay questions.

Since most if not all of the readers have taken these newer examinations, minimum consideration will be given to their form. Emphasis will be placed rather on the purposes that each of the various types can best serve, with suggestions for their construction and use by the teacher.

Commonly Used Short-form, Objective Tests

The types of short-form, objective tests that are in most common use include

true-false, multiple choice, completion, and matching. Each type can be used to serve a definite purpose. There is difference of opinion among test constructors and test users, however, about the value of these forms. Some educators confine most of their testing to short-form types; others rarely use them; still others favor some of the forms but not others.

Objective-type tests have many values. Among their advantages, the following are significant. Objective tests:

1. Have a greater reliability than other types of tests.
2. Permit greater accuracy in scoring. A key may be used.
3. Eliminate the difficulty of trying to read poor penmanship and faulty sentences.
4. Eliminate the difficulty of trying to discover whether or not the student has fully answered the question.
5. Require less time to administer.
6. Can be scored quickly and easily.
7. Provide less opportunity for bluffing than is possible in the essay-type tests.

Objective-type tests are not without faults. Chief among the disadvantages are these:

1. A great amount of time is required to prepare good short-form questions.
2. Too many incorrect statements are presented to learners.
3. Pupils do not have the chance to express ideas in an organized form.
4. Students give too much attention to facts in their preparation for this type of test and too little to relationships between ideas.
5. The chances for cheating and guessing are greater in this type of test than in the essay type.

True-false This is a common form of the short-answer test. A statement is made and the pupil is expected to indicate its truth or falsity by encircling or underlining symbols, such as T or F; Yes or No; Plus (+) or Minus (-); Plus (+) or Zero (0); e.g.: *Every flower has a corolla.* T F.

True-false tests are easy to score but difficult to construct. Facts, events, or principles basic to the subject matter can be used well in this type of question. A test consisting entirely of

questions of this kind should contain at least 50 (preferably 100) items to insure coverage of subject matter. Care must be taken that the statements are expressed in clear-cut, simple, and understandable language. Trick questions should be avoided, and questions should deal with fact, not opinion.

Multiple choice or best answer This type of objective test is exceedingly popular among school people. An opening statement is made, followed by four or five possible ways of completing the sentence. The one correct or *best answer* is to be indicated by one or another means: encircling the letter or number that identifies the choice, underlining the choice, or entering the appropriate letter or number in a column to the left or right of the question. The multiple-choice question can be illustrated as follows:

1. The author of *Silas Marner* is
 - (a) Scott
 - (b) Eliot
 - (c) Burns
 - (d) Wordsworth
 - (e) Browning
2. Of the following, the most important result of the Industrial Revolution is:
 - a. the rise of the leisure class.
 - b. the extension of the media of communication.
 - c. the beginning of fair-wage-and-hour legislation.
 - d. the increase of mechanical inventions.
 - e. the fall of capitalism.

Unless the constructor of this type of test uses good judgment in selecting the choices, he may have one or more items that are patently incorrect, the correct one may be too obvious, or more than one item may be essentially correct.

Completion In one or more statements dealing with subject-matter content, key words are omitted and are to be filled in by the pupil, for example:

To Silas Marner, little Eppie took the place of the _____ which he had lost.

Completion tests are useful measures of recall, but they must be carefully constructed. The sentence to be completed should be worded so that it does not admit of more than one interpretation and answer.

Matching This form of objective test resembles the multiple-choice test in some respects. Two lists of items are presented. The task is to make the appropriate association between the items on the respective lists and to indicate the association according to directions given. This type of test has various forms; the simplest is illustrated in part below.

<i>Author</i>	<i>Author's Work</i>
—1. Charles Dickens	a. <i>Vanity Fair</i>
—2. William Shakespeare	b. <i>Tom Sawyer</i>
—3. George Eliot	c. <i>Othello</i>
—4. Harriet Beecher Stowe	d. <i>David Copperfield</i>
—5. William Thackeray	e. <i>Uncle Tom's Cabin</i>
	f. <i>The Mill on the Floss</i>

A matching test should be neither too short nor too long. It should contain at least ten and not more than twenty-five items in one column and one or two more in the other. A matching test is an excellent device for testing recall. "Cue" words should be avoided, and items should not be included in one list that can be identified equally well with more than one item in the other list, unless this is desired for a special reason.

Modified Essay Type There are times when it is desirable to give a student free rein in an essay-type examination. A general discussion question tests the pupil's ability to organize learning material and serves also as a challenge to the more able student to select from what he has learned those items that are pertinent to the question. It usually is better, however, to limit an essay-type question to one specific problem and to indicate the areas of the problem to be treated in the answer. For example:

1. Discuss "naturalism" in English poetry, including the following points:
 - a. Name two poets who were naturalists.
 - b. Name two poems written by each of these poets.
 - c. Select one of the poems named and describe briefly the thought which the poet was attempting to convey to the reader.
2. Elizabeth Barrett Browning's "Cry of the Children" exercised considerable influence on the thinking of the English people.
 - a. What is the theme of this poem?

- b. Describe briefly the conditions in England that led to its writing.
- c. Why did the poem influence the thinking of the English people?

When a teacher constructs an essay question he should formulate a model answer for it to serve as a guide for rating pupils' work. He should not follow his interpretation so inflexibly, however, that he fails to recognize a pupil's answer to a question as correct even though it differs in some respects from his own.

Time is important in essay-type examinations. Teachers sometimes underestimate the amount of time required by a pupil to read and comprehend the question, organize his thinking, and then go about expressing his thoughts in clear and correct English. A good rule for a teacher, especially the beginning teacher, is to time himself as he writes an adequate (not elaborate) answer to the question and then to multiply by three the number of minutes he spent. This formula usually indicates sufficient time for the average pupil to complete the answer.

One pitfall of the essay-type examination is that it may become no more than an exercise in English composition. There is difference of opinion among educators concerning the importance of the content of an answer as compared with the way in which the material is presented. Some teachers find it worthwhile to indicate errors and assign two marks—one for content, the other for composition and general appearance of the paper.

Functions of Teacher-Made Tests Tests and examinations can serve: (1) to determine whether the pupil is ready for the next unit of subject matter or for promotion to the next grade, (2) to enable the teacher to evaluate his teaching, (3) to diagnose individual difficulties so that remedial techniques may be applied, and (4) to discover the extent of pupil knowledge in a unit or area of learning *before* the teaching of the material.

The last-named purpose is probably the least common, though the administration of a well-constructed pretest helps the teacher avoid wasting time on material already learned and serves to motivate pupil interest in the mastery of new material. If the teacher administers a similar test at the end of the learn-

ing unit, he can measure the amount of learning progress during the time that elapsed between the two tests.

It should be emphasized that testing as a means of pupil evaluation should be a co-operative project. Both teacher and pupil should understand thoroughly the purpose of testing, and they should do whatever is needed in the way of class or individual remedial work to improve learning.

STANDARDIZED TESTS

Unlike the teacher-made short-form test, a standardized test is constructed by a test specialist according to certain definite rules. The standardized test is intended for general use and usually covers a wider range of material than does the teacher-made test intended to help evaluate the progress of learners in a specific situation. A published standardized test includes carefully prepared directions for its administration and scoring, as well as norms for the interpretation of the scores. The norms are arrived at through the administration of the test to large numbers of pupils in many or most of the states.

The validity of a test depends on the extent to which it tests what it is supposed to test. Another characteristic of a standardized test is its degree of *reliability*, or consistency of performance. A test is said to have a high degree of reliability if groups of unselected individuals perform similarly on two forms of the same test or on the same form when it is readministered to them after a lapse of time.

Although standardized tests and teacher-made tests have some elements in common, they differ in several ways, as indicated below:

A Teacher-Made Test

1. Is constructed for a specific teacher-learning situation.
2. Usually has questions directly related to details of the learning situation.

A Standardized Test

1. Is constructed for use in any teaching-learning situation in which the content of the test is covered.
2. Usually is general in its application to subject matter.

3. May or may not be valid or reliable.
4. May contain either short-form or essay-type questions.
5. Does not have norms or standards of achievement with which the performance of pupils can be compared.
6. Usually is a group test.
7. May be used for diagnostic, survey, or pretesting purposes.
3. Has a high degree of validity and reliability.
4. Usually is limited to short-form questions.
5. Has norms of performance, based on many cases, with which individual results can be compared.
6. May be either an individual or a group test.
7. May be diagnostic, prognostic, or survey.

Functions of Standardized Testing Techniques The functions of a teacher-made and of a standardized testing technique sometimes overlap. Yet each has a place in a program of pupil evaluation. Complete reliance upon either would fail to take into account both the broad and the specific aims of any educational program. Pupil progress should be measured in the light of the school's curriculum and teaching emphasis and should be compared with the progress that can be expected of young people throughout the country. A good standardized measuring instrument can be used by supervisors or teachers to compare their pupils' status with that of pupils in other similar schools throughout the country.

By proper use of appropriate standardized tests, scales, and inventories, answers can be obtained to such questions as the following:

1. How does the intellectual capacity of our pupils compare with that of pupils in other schools?
2. Are we meeting generally accepted objectives for a particular subject field?
3. How do the interests of our pupils compare with those of other young people?
4. To what extent are the individual learning difficulties of our pupils peculiar to our teaching-learning situation?

5. What special aptitudes do our pupils possess?
6. How well adjusted emotionally are our pupils compared with others?

It may be neither desirable nor feasible for any one teacher to attempt to answer all these questions by administering standardized tests or scales. In every school, however, there is a need, at one time or another, for administrators to raise questions such as these and, through the use of valid and reliable standardized evaluating instruments, to attempt to discover the answers.

Results of the administration of standardized measuring instruments can reveal the learning needs of individual pupils and so indicate needed curriculum adjustments. These tests can also help classify and group pupils for instruction, and modify teaching materials and methods.

Types of Standardized Measuring Instruments Standardized measuring instruments are classified according to the purpose they are expected to serve:

1. Intelligence tests
2. General and specific aptitude tests
3. Scholastic achievement tests—comprehensive, or subject area
4. Personality tests, scales, interest inventories, and projective techniques

Measuring instruments can be classified, with respect to their administration, as *individual* (administered to one person at a time) or *group* (administered to a group or groups under similar testing conditions). Most of these tests are written. The pupil must respond to questions or problems by the use of symbols (+ or 0) or by underlining or encircling appropriate letters, numbers, words, or phrases. Some tests in the field of aptitude measurement require the pupil to trace a path in a maze or arrange blocks in appropriate spaces. These tests are called *performance tests*. In most tests, time is very important. The manual of directions which accompanies the test usually stresses the necessity of following exactly the stated time allowance for the entire test or each part of it.

At present an increasing number of standardized tests or scales are available in most areas of pupil evaluation.

Tests of general intelligence or mental ability The use of an intelligence test having high *validity* (the extent to which the test measures what it purports to measure) and *reliability* (the extent to which the test yields similar results when given under similar conditions) helps school people obtain quickly a usable evaluation of a pupil's learning capacity. Individual tests, such as the Terman and Merrill Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Test of Mental Ability and the Wechsler-Bellevue tests, yield the most accurate results. These tests, which should be administered only by a specially trained person, are used mainly to determine whether a young person should be assigned to a special class. In all other cases, group tests afford useful data if it is remembered that factors other than mental ability may affect an adolescent's attitude toward and behavior in learning situations.

Tests and scales for the measurement of special aptitude Individuals differ from one another in talents. The ability to succeed in academic learning or skill performance may be more or less general in nature, or it may be limited to superior ability in a specific field. An aptitude represents a potentiality which, if suitably developed, can lead to superior performance in an area of activity, such as music, art, mathematics, language, or mechanics.

Aptitude involves both inborn and environmental influences, which vary with individuals. In addition, readiness to learn affects the kind and extent of aptitude development that is achieved. Greater progress toward specialization can be made if a specific aptitude is discovered early, so that timing, also, is a factor influencing aptitude development.

Considerable attention is being given by educators and test constructors to the development of aptitude tests that have practical value. *The Differential Aptitude Test (DAT)* is a battery of tests that appears to have relatively high predictive value in verbal reasoning, numerical ability, abstract reasoning, space

relations, mechanical reasoning, clerical speed and accuracy, and language usage. A relatively high relationship was found to exist between intelligence, as measured on the *Army General Classification Test* (AGCT), and civilian occupation before induction into the armed services. The *Potts-Bennett Predictive Aptitudes Test* has proven valuable in the selection of students for nurse training. The results of any aptitude test should be used only by those who know how to interpret them.

Tests of scholastic achievement Many scholastic-achievement tests in specific subject-matter areas are available for secondary-school use. They are not generally popular, however, one reason being the great amount of subject-matter content in respective learning areas on this level. It is impossible for a teacher to cover adequately all the details of his subject. Hence what the constructor of a standardized test considers to be basic knowledge may include items that have been treated sketchily, if at all, by an individual teacher. At present, the tests that seem to yield best results deal with generally accepted fundamentals.

Personality tests and scales and interest inventories Psychologists differ concerning what constitutes personality. It is generally regarded as a total integrated and integrating pattern of many characteristics and behavior traits which shows relative constancy in differing situations. Some authorities, however, hold that personality does not exist apart from stimulating environmental factors, that trait behavior changes with differing situations. If this interpretation of personality were accepted, it would be extremely difficult to measure any general functioning of personality traits.

Assuming that personality is a definite entity and that personality traits are characterized by a certain degree of consistency in differing situations, we can attempt to evaluate the functioning of one or another trait. Overt behavior in social situations is accompanied by attitudes, motivations, and tensions. A personality test, therefore, needs to measure not only the observable behavior but also the inner reactions that accompany that behavior. Consequently, most personality tests require the subject to report what he would do in a given situation and

how he feels about himself and other people with whom he associates.

Personality tests and inventories yield a relatively valid estimate of personal qualities, such as degree of dominance or submission; extroversion or introversion; adjustment to home, school, and social experiences; industry; honesty; seriousness; and cheerfulness. Measuring instruments, referred to as *interest inventories*, can be used to discover individual interests.

Some psychologists evaluate behavior according to the interaction of various trait clusters. The whole reaction pattern is considered. According to this theory of personality, the individual projects in his overt responses the total inner complex of his attitudes and emotions. Various *projective techniques* have been devised to discover the underlying causes of exhibited maladjustments, the most popular being the *Rorschach Ink-Blot Test* and the *Thematic Apperception Test*. These tests are administered individually by specialists. Because of the subjective nature of the responses, the scoring and interpretation of results are difficult and still questionable.

The results of all personality evaluation instruments need to be interpreted intelligently and with recognition that what the test reports and what the pupil actually does may differ widely. Often an alert adolescent knows what is expected of him and gears his responses to what he thinks he should report about himself regardless of the truth of his statements. Partly because of the subjectivity of measurement in this field and partly because of the cost in time and energy to administer them, these measuring techniques are used sparingly.

Principles of Test Administration Regardless of the extent of a testing program, certain principles of test selection and administration should be followed.

1. A test should be selected carefully according to:
 - a. Purpose to be achieved.
 - b. Validity of the test—the extent to which the test measures what it purports to measure.
 - c. Reliability of the test—the degree of similarity of response that can be expected when two forms of the test are administered to the same individuals.

- d. The ease with which the test can be administered and scored and the results interpreted.
- e. Other things being equal, the cost of the test.

2. The test should be administered according to directions given in the manual of directions.
3. Test responses should be corrected accurately. A check-up correction is desirable.
4. Test results should be interpreted in accordance with the norms and suggestions presented in the manual.
5. A standardized test should never be administered only as a matter of routine. Whatever the administration and interpretation of a test discloses about individual pupils or groups of pupils should serve as a basis for the application of appropriate remedial instruction or adjustment techniques.

CASE HISTORIES

In some cases of serious pupil maladjustment, a detailed history of the life pattern of the individual is needed. An experienced person, usually a psychiatric social worker, accumulates appropriate data by which to evaluate developmental status and progress. These data are then studied, recommendations are made, and therapy is applied.

Case Report versus Case History The amount and kind of information needed about an individual with an adjustment difficulty are determined by the intensity of the problem, its persistence, and the probable effect on the subject of his experiences in connection with his problem. For the treatment of minor difficulties, school people can assemble pertinent data in the form of a *case report* (an account of the difficulty). In more serious situations, however, trained case workers collect, in the form of a *case history*, as many items as they can concerning every phase of the patient's past and present experiences. The accumulated data is interpreted and synthesized by members of the clinical staff to whom the case has been referred. The following general areas of information and evaluation are included in a case history:

1. Identifying data—name, sex, age, and so on
2. Description of the apparent problem
3. Information concerning family situation and relationships and neighborhood conditions
4. Developmental history—birth and early and later childhood experiences
5. Past and present physical and health conditions
6. School experiences and progress
7. Social activities and relationships
8. Results of the administration of appropriate evaluating instruments
9. Information gained through interviews concerning the individual's interests, plans, ambitions, and life goals

Of great help is the co-operation of school guidance counselors, teachers, and parents, since they not only offer pertinent information about the patient but also apply therapeutic procedures recommended by the clinical staff.

THE INTERVIEW

Some lay people regard guidance and counseling as no more than a series of interviews between sympathetic counselors and troubled counselees, during which the counselors solve all problems. Actually, the interview has many purposes, one of which is to help the counselee solve his own problems. The interview may be informal or planned.

Informal Interviews An interested and perceptive teacher can learn much about his pupils during informal chats, which are possible even for the busiest of teachers. Individual contacts reveal various personal characteristics, interests, and modes of thinking that do not always show themselves in group situations. Unfortunately, end-of-period and end-of-day bells make everyone stop what he is doing, imposing an impersonality of relationship between the teacher and his pupils that often is strongly resented by pupils. Any form of school procedure that would give teachers and pupils an opportunity to become better acquainted with one another in an informal setting would improve

teacher evaluation of pupil progress and would strengthen pupil morale.

The Planned Interview There are times in the school life of every adolescent when a relatively formal or a planned interview with a counselor or teacher is needed. This interview may serve any one of many purposes: curriculum or course planning, vocational selection, personal adjustment, and other immediate or long-range problems. The interview may be held both to give and to obtain information. Properly conducted, it is one of the most effective techniques of pupil evaluation.

No matter what the purpose of the interview may be, certain procedures should be followed.

1. The interview should be conducted in a place that affords privacy and comfort for both interviewer and interviewee.
2. Since an interview usually is by appointment, the interviewer should prepare himself by obtaining beforehand whatever information he can about the interviewee and the topic to be discussed.
3. The interviewee should be received cordially when he arrives; a friendly attitude should be maintained throughout the interview.
4. The interviewee should be encouraged to talk freely and to ask questions. The interviewer should refrain from haranguing or preaching.
5. The interviewee should be assured that any information he gives will be kept confidential unless he specifically permits the interviewer to use it.
6. When the purpose of the interview has been accomplished so far as is possible at the time, the interviewer should terminate it tactfully.
7. The interviewee should leave the interview with the feeling that he has profited from the experience and that he may return for follow-up interviews if they are needed.

Successful interviewing is an art achieved only through training and experience. To begin with, however, the interviewer should be a person who is genuinely interested in young people, can put himself into the interviewee's place, is objective

but sympathetic, and has a wide background of knowledge and understanding which he can share with others.

The Directive versus the Nondirective Approach The interview procedures listed above pertain to any interview, regardless of its purpose. If the purpose of the interview is to give information to the interviewee or to receive information from him, a *directive* question-and-answer approach is used. When the function of an interview or a series of interviews is to help an individual solve an intense personal problem, the counselor may use what is referred to as a *nondirective* approach, by which the counselee is encouraged to think through his problem without any direct questioning by the counselor. If, for example, an adolescent fails to achieve satisfactory relationships with other persons, it is important that he recognize the basic causes of his maladjustment, develop insights into his difficulties, and arrive at a constructive solution of his problem. His counselor cannot tell him what to do. The pupil himself must gain self-understanding and bring about changes in his attitudes and behavior.

Adjustive counseling places the responsibility for improvement on the client. Hence, during interview sessions, the counselor encourages the counselee to talk freely about his problem and think through the situation. The counselor's role becomes that of a sympathetic and intelligent listener, whose chief function is to motivate the pupil to develop greater personal integration and independence. The extent to which any interview can be completely nondirective continues to be a matter of controversy among counselors and clinicians. According to Carl Rogers, a well-known exponent of the nondirective approach, any directing of the conduct of the interview by the counselor must be subtle and not recognized as such by the person being interviewed.

MARKS AND MARKING SYSTEMS

“What did you get?” “What mark did the teacher give you?” These questions are asked constantly by adolescent children and their parents. Too often the implication of the question is

that the teacher *assigns* the mark, not that the pupil demonstrates that he has mastered all, most, some, or none of the material to which he was exposed.

Attitude Toward Marks There is growing dissatisfaction with traditional and existing marking systems. The total elimination of marks, however, probably would be undesirable; parents want to know how their children are progressing in school. Recalling their own school experiences, they seem to want a percentage or a letter grade with any additional comments which the teacher may wish to make. Most parents are much more likely to question the validity of a teacher's analysis of their child's progress than they are to complain of a percentage or letter grade. They seem neither to understand nor to accept interpretative comments.

Let us say that a parent receives this report of his child's achievement in French: "*Effort*—excellent. Pronunciation of French words much improved. A little more practice on verb forms and agreement needed." He is likely to ask, "What does this mean? Is the mark A, B, or C?" The pupil himself understands the meaning of the comment but wants to know where his teacher places him in relation to his classmates. In addition, too many other teachers still motivate their pupils to work for high marks or to improve marks. Naturally, a student wants to know where he stands. If, however, all teachers encouraged their pupils to improve their skills, master knowledge, and develop attitudes that will help them in their day-by-day living, emphasizing these rather than marks or percentage grades as goals, parents and students alike would come to form a new concept of progress.

School people are modifying traditional percentage and letter symbols of grading. In some schools, final or term marks are assigned in percentage multiples of five. This procedure makes it possible to avoid any attempt to decide, for example, that Henry's work rates 86 and John's only 85 per cent. A certain per cent, such as 60, 65, or 70, is set up as the lowest passing mark. No matter how high or low this passing mark may be, the same ratio of passing and failing pupils seems to result.

Attempted Improvement When letter grades are used, such as A, B, C, D, and F (failing), percentage equivalents usually are attached to the letter grade. These equivalents are set up arbitrarily except when pupil achievement is evaluated on the basis of statistical treatment of data. Evaluating pupil achievement on the basis of statistical treatment can be explained briefly by an example. In two classes in secondary education taught by one of the authors during two consecutive semesters, the term averages fell into the following patterns:

	Spring	Fall
Highest term average	90	89
Q_3	85	86
Median	80	79
Q_1	73	74
Lowest term average	69	52

Those students whose term average exceeded Q_3 received an A; those who ranged from Q_3 to the median were B; a term average from the median through Q_1 earned a C. Students who fell below Q_1 received D except for the one student who in the spring term earned 52 as a result of demonstrated inability to understand or master the content of the course. This technique is not entirely satisfactory, yet it has much to commend it, especially if pupils are encouraged during the semester to evaluate their own learning progress.

The described marking technique is, in effect, a modification of the normal curve of distribution. If the normal curve is to be employed, the school must decide what the distribution of grades should be, that is, what percentage of the grades should fall into each of the letter categories. The range of distribution for each category commonly used is as follows:

- A— 5 to 7 per cent of pupils
- B— 24 to 25 per cent of pupils
- C— 38 to 40 per cent of pupils
- D— 24 to 25 per cent of pupils
- F— 5 to 7 per cent of pupils

A scheme of this kind assumes that there will be about the same percentage of F's as of A's. This is not necessarily the case, especially in small groups or in advanced or elective courses.

Visual Grading In visual grading the scores are plotted on cross-sectional paper for visual interpretation. (See Figure 12.) The principle of normal distribution is adapted to small groups, thus avoiding the pitfalls of the application of the normal curve. According to its advocate, visual grading is based on four criteria of a meaningful grading system.

1. The grade for achievement in a given subject should be based on a comprehensive and extensive measurement program. . . .
2. The grade must be a symbol of comparison between student status and known and fair standards. . . .
3. Grades and reports should be realistic. . . .
4. The grade symbols must be understandable to students and parents.¹

Visual grading is valuable because it (1) makes it easy to include all types of scores, (2) provides a uniform basis of comparison, (3) helps keep grades constant from teacher to teacher, (4) makes grades realistic, (5) is easily explained to students and parents, and (6) consumes less time than many other methods. To give a general idea of the way it is used we are including a chart from the booklet. (The booklet can be secured from the publisher for \$1.25.)

In Figure 12, the scores of students in different classes are given in Section I, Section II, and Section III. The teacher combines them into one over-all grouping to determine both the spread and the cluster of all the scores. It is in the combined grouping that the teacher can more easily determine the dividing point between A and B, B and C, and so on. After this procedure has been completed, the instructor can easily assign the proper letter grade to each individual according to his earned score.

Alternate Grading System Some teachers advocate discarding definite grades. They prefer to indicate progress by the words *satisfactory* and *unsatisfactory*. This general form of evaluation penalizes pupils whose work is superior and who want recognition of their achievement. Even in graduate

¹ Kenneth L. Russell, *Visual Grading*, Educational Filmstrips, Huntsville, Texas, 1959, pp. 12-13.

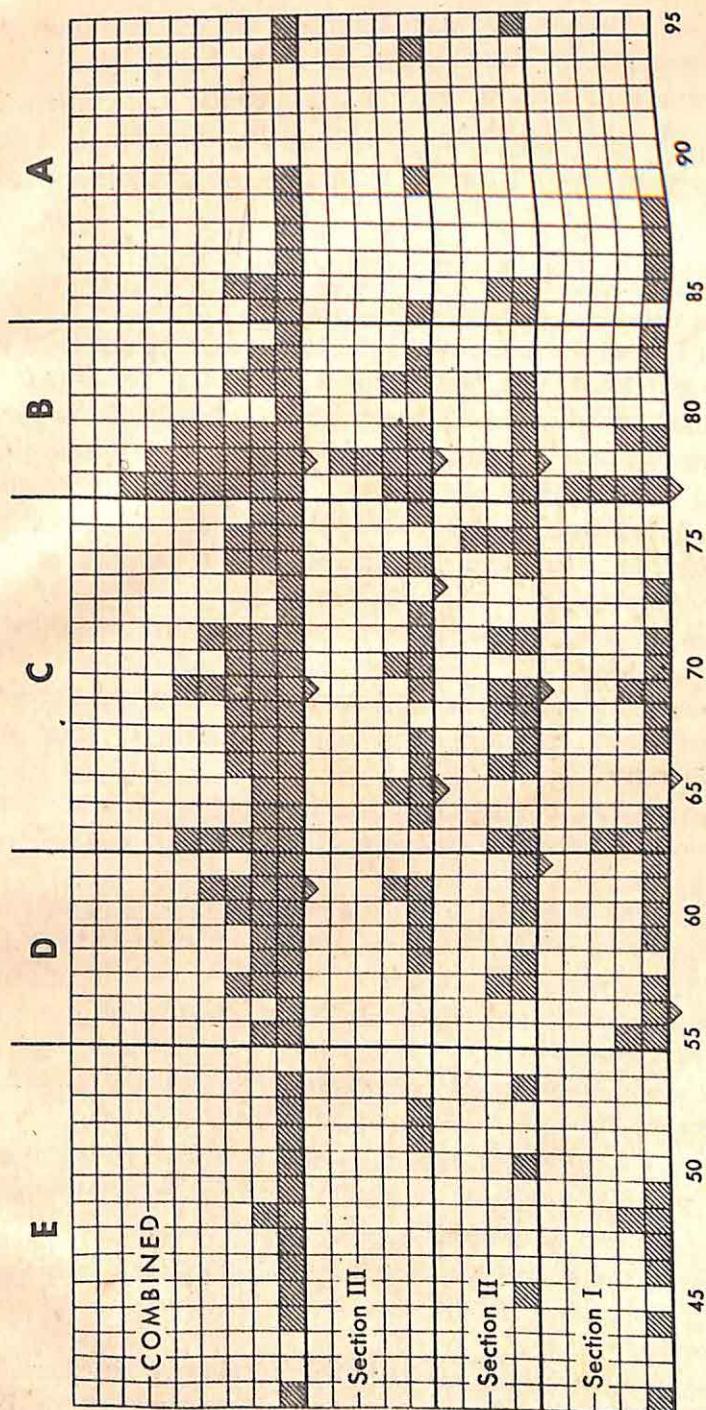


Figure 12. Chart Illustrating a Method of Combining Scores from Several Sections of the Same Course Taught by the Same Teacher

schools this system has been modified by the addition of another category, *excellent* (or *superior* or *exceptional*).

Most marking systems are relatively artificial. A mark, however, should represent a degree of accomplishment; it should not serve solely as a stimulator of classroom achievement.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Defend the essay-type examination.
2. What is your attitude toward the short-form type of test? Which type of test do you prefer and why?
3. Discuss difficulties in the construction of each of the four objective-type tests discussed in this chapter.
4. Using material from your subject, construct at least twenty-five short-form questions for each of the four types. If possible, administer them to your classmates for the purpose of critical evaluation.
5. If you have had experience in taking a pretest, describe your reactions to it.
6. Assume that you are a secondary-school teacher. Construct a pretest and a final test for a unit of teaching in your subject-matter field.
7. To what extent should school people be guided in their evaluation of pupils' learning readiness by the results of intelligence and aptitude tests?
8. By referring to books on measurement, familiarize yourself with the names of at least five standardized achievement tests in your own field. Try to secure one of them and evaluate it critically according to the objectives which the teaching of your subject should achieve.
9. Why are the results of personality tests not always valid and reliable?
10. What are some of the difficulties encountered by a social worker in attempting to obtain a complete and accurate case history of an adolescent who needs special treatment?
11. Discuss some of the purposes that can be served by an interview. What preparation would you make for an interview with an adolescent?
12. If you were ever interviewed by a teacher or prospective employer, evaluate the behavior of the interviewer in the light of the interviewing procedures discussed in this chapter.
13. What is your attitude toward existing marking systems? Make suggestions for their modification or change.

14. What is your reaction to the suggested plan of distributing final grades according to medians and quartiles?
15. What are the purposes of evaluating?
16. Discuss the advantages of visual grading.

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